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By Bruce Allen Biggs

Entitled

EXAMINING LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER JOB SATISFACTION AND BURNOUT THROUGH THE LENS OF
EMPOWERMENT THEORY

For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Is approved by the final examining committee:

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4/14/2016

Date

EXAMINING LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER JOB SATISFACTION AND
BURNOUT THROUGH THE LENS OF EMPOWERMENT THEORY

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty

of

Purdue University

by

Bruce A. Biggs

In Partial Fulfillment of the

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of

Doctor of Philosophy

May 2016

Purdue University

West Lafayette, Indiana

To my family and my wife, Amy, thank you.

Also, to every person who incorporates the thin blue line
and their remarkable families. Truly, in your valor there is hope. Thank you.

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ABSTRACT

Biggs, Bruce A. Ph.D., Purdue University, May 2016. Examining Law Enforcement Officer Job Satisfaction and Burnout Through the Lens of Empowerment Theory. Major Professor: Linda L. Naimi.

This exploratory cross-sectional study examined the organizational factors that influence law enforcement officers' perception of job stress and perception of job satisfaction. The extant literature is replete with the finding that organizational factors (job context) rather than the aspects of providing police service (job content) cause law enforcement officers the largest amount of stress and job dissatisfaction. However, the literature also shows that the exact organizational factors that wield these deleterious effects are enigmatic.

This situation is further confounded by the lack of a guiding and encompassing theoretical construct through which the myriad of organizational influences and consequences may be identified and measured. It was postulated that empowerment theory might provide this theoretical lens as it has been successfully employed as such in similar private sector research. This construct was operationalized a priori as consisting of seven sub-constructs, with the initial research questions and hypotheses framed accordingly. Subsequently, a unidimensional construct of department support, conceptually based on organizational support theory, emerged as the dominant construct through which the research questions were pursued.

An AMOS structural equation model analysis of the relationship between the one-factor construct of department support, officer job satisfaction and burnout (emotional exhaustion) revealed a good fitting model where $\chi^2(103, N = 487) = 227.15, p < .001$, CFI = .963, RMSEA = .050, 90% CI [.015 - .059]. All parameters (regression pathways) and variance values were statistically significant at $p < .001$. Department support had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction and accounted for 35% of the variance ($R^2 = .35$, $\beta = .59, p < .001$), and, a significant negative effect on burnout, accounting for a variance of 14% ($R^2 = .14, \beta = -.38, p < .001$).

The findings of this study suggest that organizational support theory may be an excellent lens through which to examine the antecedents and consequences of the law enforcement organizational environment. However, these results are extremely tentative as more research in this area is needed to confirm the findings here, and, to clearly define the constructs of organizational support and empowerment as they exist and function in law enforcement organizations.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

This study was a comprehensive testing, expansion and refinement of the author's Master's thesis research (Biggs, 2011) and a subsequent article (Biggs & Naimi, 2012) based on that early research in which he initially pilot tested a model involving the predictive influence of the structural empowerment construct upon police officer job satisfaction and job stress. The positive results of the pilot study indicated that a much larger examination of the model was warranted. However, while considerable changes were made in the study methodology, much of the original literary and theoretical foundation are retained in necessary support of this larger investigation.

There has been considerable recent scholar and practitioner interest in workplace empowerment theory (Carless, 2004; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Liden & Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Shadur, Kienzle, & Rodwell, 1999). Workplace empowerment is broadly defined as a motivational mechanism through which employees are able to affect their work roles and work environment (Spreitzer 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowering strategies generally involve a paradigm shift from authoritarian scientific management practices to more participative management practices which give increased control to employees (Drucker, 2002; Sparks, Faragher, & Cooper, 2000; Landry, Mahesh, & Hartman, 2005). This shift was not driven by a systemic change in managerial philosophy which aimed to create a more democratic work context; rather, the shift was precipitated by the rapidly expanding market competition of a world

economy (Sparks et al, 2000). The intense competition on a world stage is further amplified by the constant advancement of production and information technologies that generate the rapidity and efficiency of all aspects of the business process. (Landry et al.).

Workplace empowerment theory has emerged as a viable management construct that creates the possibility of producing positive outcomes that benefit both individuals and organizations (Leana & Florkowski, 1992; Liden & Tewsbury, 1995). For example, research into empowerment in private sector entities has shown these practices result in increased employee commitment (McDermott, Laschinger, & Shamian, 1996; Vandenberg, Richardson, & Eastman, 1999), greater innovation (Spreitzer, DeJanasz, & Quinn, 1999), and a reduction in employee turnover and absenteeism (Foster-Fisherman & Keys, 1997). Study findings also indicate that individual employees benefit from empowering practices through increased job satisfaction (Laschinger, Finegan, Shaiman & Wilk, 2001; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Thomas & Tymon, 1994) and a decrease in job stress (Butts, Vandenburg, DeJoy, Schaffer, & Wilson, 2009; Laschinger et al., 2001; Sarimento, Laschinger, & Iwasiw, 2003; Spreitzer et al., 1997).

A few public sector organizations have also engaged in empowering strategies in an effort to convert ineffective and inefficient bureaucracies (Moynihan, 2006), into more productive organizations (Brudney, Hebert, & Wright, 1999). Research into empowerment in the public sector suggests that the resulting organizational and individual benefits are consistent with those of the private sector (Carless, 2004; Tesluk, Vance, & Mathieu, 1999; Steinhieder & Wuestewald, 2008).

However, work place empowerment has been given little notice in the law enforcement profession (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). The current and traditional

managerial structure of police agencies is that of a paramilitary authoritarian hierarchy, with power being largely concentrated at the top level of the organization (King, 2003; Reiter, 1999). As such, decision-making authority is largely exclusive to upper level leaders. This organizational structure has existed for over a century, and many scholars (King, 2003), including some practitioners (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008), argue that this schema has become antiquated and is incapable of meeting the demands of contemporary policing. An increasing body of literature indicates that the traditional police management environment does not produce the necessary amount of officer authority and operational support to effectively facilitate or maintain the evolution of police service delivery from a predominantly reactive response to proactive community policing (Adams, Rowe, & Arcury, 2002; Giacomazzi, Riley, & Merz, 2004; Lord, 1996; Rosenberg, Sigler, & Lewis, 2008). Research results also demonstrate that the current non-participative law enforcement paradigm has a negative impact on officer job satisfaction (Carlan, 2007; Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999) and has been found to increase officer stress (Slate, Johnson, & Colbert, 2007; Stinchcomb, 2004; Zhao, He, & Lovrich, 2002).

However, studies into the organizational environment of policing and officer attitudes have been largely inconclusive; thus the exact nature of this relationship remains extremely unknown (Carlan, 2006; Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999; Zhao et al., 2002). King (2003) describes this situation as one in which “critics toss a host of amorphous organizational variables into a cauldron labeled ‘problem makers’ and associate this cauldron with another kettle of variables labeled “problems” (p. 211). Webster (2013)

contends that research into police stress “suffers from a lack of theoretical guidance... [and therefore] having a theoretical base will guide the selection base of having variables to measure” (p. 644)

Thus, the state of the extant literature strongly suggested the need to identify a theoretical construct that is capable of operationally defining the myriad of amorphous organizational variables. It appeared that the construct of structural empowerment may have this ability as a theoretical correlation appears to exist between empowerment theory and the antecedent and consequences of the internal police environment. Yet, scholarly examination of this possible relationship is nearly nonexistent (Slate et al., 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Therefore, this suggested a need to investigate deficiencies in the existing law enforcement management paradigm in order to measure the degree to which empowering structures, as theorized by (Kanter (1977, 1993) and Lawler (1986, 1992, 1996) inherently function within police organizations. Both theorists believe that workplace empowerment was possible only when specific enabling structures are accessible to employees.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

There is empirical evidence that the current police organizational paradigm impedes the movement toward community oriented policing and negatively impacts officer job satisfaction and job stress. The majority of American law enforcement agencies are traditionally managed and practice some form of community policing (COPS Office, 2014). It appears highly unlikely, given research findings, that these agencies will be able to effectively implement community policing service without determining the degree to which the required mechanisms of support and empowerment

exist within the organization. The failure of the community policing movement would not bode well for the agencies, and the communities they serve would not realize the benefit of this critical service enhancement. It is highly probable that the officers of these agencies are also experiencing poor job satisfaction and unnecessarily high levels of job stress due to the internal work environment in the existing organizational paradigm. It is well established that negative officer attitudes impede effective police service and severely jeopardize the police-citizen partnership. Therefore, the need also exists to investigate officer perceptions of these critical consequential attitudes in an attempt to identify and ameliorate any internal causes.

1.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ 1. Is structural and psychological empowerment a viable theoretical lens through which to examine the police organizational environment? Thus:

H₁: Structural empowerment is a multidimensional construct composed of seven factors: Formal Power, Informal Power, Department Support, Reward Task Resources, Information, and Job Knowledge.

RQ 2. Does a positive statistical relationship exist between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment? Thus:

H₂: There is a statistically significant positive relationship, net the effects of demographic variables, between officer perception of structural empowerment and officer perception of psychological empowerment.

RQ 3. Does psychological empowerment mediate the effects of structural empowerment on officer perception of job satisfaction and officer perception of burnout (emotional exhaustion)? Thus:

H₃: There is a positive statistically significant relationship between officer perception of structural empowerment and job satisfaction that is mediated by psychological empowerment.

- H₄: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between officer perception of structural empowerment and burnout that is mediated by psychological empowerment
- RQ 4. Which of the sub-constructs of structural empowerment and psychological empowerment are the strongest predictors of officer perception of job satisfaction and officer perception of burnout? Thus:
- H₅: There is no difference in the predictive strength of the sub-constructs of structural empowerment and psychological empowerment.
- RQ 5. Are officer and agency traits predictive of structural empowerment? Thus:
- H₆₋₁₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between the officer demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, education, tenure, assignment and agency size, and officer perception of structural empowerment.

1.3 Significance of the Problem

Several critical concerns drove this study. First, there was a void of scholarship regarding the organizational domain of law enforcement due to the majority of police science research focusing on enforcement activities (King, 2003; Macquire, 2003). Also, researchers contend that many police study methodologies were predicated on the assumption that the current paradigm innately inhibits officer development and obstructs community policing initiatives, so that the internal causes of these negative results remained undefined (Hart & Cotton, 2002; King, 2003; Zhao et al., 2002). The situation is additionally confounded by the work of Adler and Borys (1996) who believe that there are two types of bureaucracy: coercive and enabling. The bureaucratic climate enforces procedures that stifle creativity, while the enabling environment provides rules to clarify activities and define roles. It would be erroneous to believe that all police bureaucracies are inherently coercive. Yet, no published measuring instruments exist that may be employed to determine the bureaucratic orientation of law enforcement entities.

Additionally, scant scholarly attention has been paid to the examination of empowering or participative initiatives in law enforcement, including even antecedent focused methodologies (Slate et al., 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). This research void became apparent in the literature review for this work as only one published study was found (Winegar, 2003) that investigated organizational factors and officer perception of empowerment in a police organization. As such, there has been little information available to guide police leaders in determining what to change in their organizations in order to increase officer wellness and support community policing. Considering the current state of knowledge, progressive police leaders are challenged with taking corrective action because they do not know exactly what to correct, which is similar to bailing out a sinking ship without first plugging the leaks.

Furthermore, organizational theorists outside law enforcement continue to call for increased study of the antecedents and consequences of work place empowerment (Carless, 2004). Laschinger et al. (2004) believe that Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory of structural empowerment is viable for a myriad of work contexts, yet so far research of this construct has been limited to the nursing profession. In concurrence, Butts et al. (2009) contend that research of Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) High Involvement Work Process theory and the consequences of these practices are in the "embryonic" stage (p.134).

1.4 Statement of the Purpose

This research sought to increase the body of knowledge in police management science by further elucidating the organizational influences that affect officer job

satisfaction and job stress. Empowerment theory was employed as a lens through which to identify and examine these factors in the police organization.

This study employed a model and methodology based on similar successful research conducted in the private sector, but which had not yet been tested in a large law enforcement sample. Here the predictive empowering structures were operationalized with a previously untested survey instrument, designed by the researcher, for a law enforcement population. The instrument contained items derived from the organizational empowerment constructs theorized by Kanter (1977, 1993) as tested by Laschinger et al. (2001) and Lawler (1986, 1992, 1996) as tested by Vandenberg et al. (1999) and Butts et al. (2009). This study also measured the influences that these structures have on officer perceptions of psychological empowerment (mediating variable), burnout (operationalized as emotional exhaustions) and job satisfaction. Finally, this research controlled for the influence of the demographic (categorical) variables of officer length of service, level of education, gender, ethnicity, type of assignment and agency size imposed upon the described relationships.

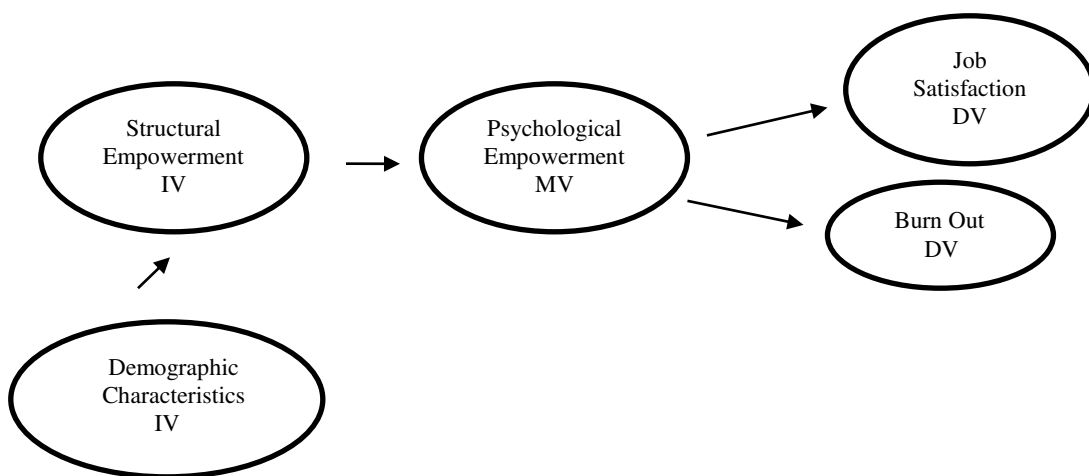


Figure 1. Study Conceptual Model
(Based upon hypothesized model from Biggs, 2011)

1.5 Assumptions

This study incorporated several major assumptions. The primary assumption is that empowerment theory, as measured in private sector studies, (Butts et al. 2009; Laschinger et al. 2001), will be applicable to the law enforcement profession. Galbraith (1973) offers support for this application by positing that the high-involvement-in-work sub-constructs of power, information, reward, and knowledge exist in all organizations, but tend to be accessible only to upper level managers. Laschninger et al. (2004), concur, suggesting that the existence and development of the construct of organizational empowerment, which had been limited in study to the nursing profession, would likely be applicable across professions. Moreover, Bakker et al. (2006) submit that the occupations of nursing and policing were analogous as they shared chronic exposure to emotionally demanding and stressful interpersonal human interactions and the need for personnel to control their expressions and emotions as part of the work role.

This analogous relationship led to the assumption that a research design proven valid in a nursing context (Laschinger et al.) would likewise be valid for a policing context. Winegar (2003) also demonstrated the viability of measuring psychological empowerment theory in law enforcement. Therefore, it was assumed that police officers wish to be empowered, would perceive or seek access to empowering structures, and would develop consequential attitudinal assessments resulting from these perceptions as have employees in other fields (Butts et al. 2009, Laschinger et al., 2004).

1.6 Limitations

The study design and unique traits of the law enforcement population generated some research limitations. Primary among these was the impossibility of this cross-sectional exploratory study to prove causal relationships between the variables. Instead, correlational influences are discussed in the data analysis and findings.

Another limitation was the lack of an existing sampling frame for the police officers in the state in which the study took place. This necessitated the use of a purposive sample. As such, a sampling limitation existed as it was impossible to draw a classic probability sample for this study.

In addition, since law enforcement officers from a single state participated in this study, the results may not be generalizable to other law enforcement populations. In particular, the officers in this study worked in a non-union state where collective bargaining and binding arbitration with public employees is not recognized. The generalizability of the results of this research may thus be limited and may not be applicable to police officers who serve in strong union states, as perhaps the means of redress created by unionization may inherently increase officer perception of empowerment. Yet, it is also possible that the perceptions exhibited by officers in this study may not vary greatly from those officers serving in other areas. More research is needed to confirm this possibility.

Response bias was also a limiting factor, particularly involving responses to the sensitive burnout/emotional exhaustion items. Thus, a bias of social desirability may exist. However, efforts were taken to mitigate this bias by assuring the anonymity of all respondents. This procedure was emphasized in the method of data collection.

Finally, this study was limited in controlling the temporal influences of human perception. On one hand, the officers may have responded to survey items based on their current work situation. On the other hand, it would be natural for the participating officers to view their careers on a continuum, where job stress, job satisfaction and the quality of organizational conditions varied over time. However, responses pertaining to either the participant's current or cumulative occupational experience were found to be conducive to answering the research questions as these sought to evaluate the antecedents and consequences of empowerment as opposed to measuring the variance in the described relationships over time.

1.7 Delimitations

This study established strict parameters to better ensure that parsimony was achieved in the research design. First, the sample for this research was comprised of officers from a single Midwestern state in order to create a manageable sample size. Also, data was not collected concerning officer perception of monetary rewards, such as salary and benefits, as such compensation is generally outside the direct control of law enforcement leaders, and is a function of the budgeting process within local government.

Furthermore, no data was collected regarding officer perceptions of stressors or satisfaction outside of the work context. No data was collected regarding stressors or job dissatisfaction with work factors external to the organization (operational/job content stressors). The narrow focus of the survey instruments was believed to effectively tap officers' perceptions that were specific to the internal organizational environment (job context).

Finally, no data from the Chief Executive Officers and Sheriffs was gathered in this study as they hold the highest level of organizational power and thus should inherently perceive access to empowering structures. In addition, no comparisons between agency types were made as the researcher was not comfortable doing so without also offering in-depth explanatory (ideally qualitative) data, which was beyond the scope of this study.

CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Review Methodology

Keyword searches of refereed journal articles, books, and other scholarly sources were conducted on several online scholarly databases, most notably, ProQuest, Google Scholar, and PsycInfo. Keywords included organizational change, empowerment, structures, law enforcement management and administration, office stress, and job satisfaction. This search focused on law enforcement organizations in the United States and other western democracies in order to control for multicultural disparities.

2.2 Literature Findings

Workplace empowerment has been an important area of research for more than forty years. A review of the literature suggested that empowerment may result in benefits for employees as well as the organization. However, how one defines workplace empowerment varies widely and despite being heavily studied, there does not appear to be a unified definition or construct of workplace empowerment. There was general consensus that workplace empowerment encompasses more than encouraging shared governance and decision-making. Yet, researchers differ in how to approach the construct. Importantly, two empowerment constructs have emerged in recent years: structural empowerment and psychological empowerment.

Structural empowerment occurs when tangible organizational structures or mechanisms, such as knowledge, information, support, power, reward, and resources, are present to enable employee success and effectiveness. In contrast, psychological empowerment refers to how an employee's perceptions or cognitions, (i.e., impact, self-determination, meaning, and competency) contribute to their sense of empowerment. .

Some researchers argue that structural empowerment and psychological empowerment were not mutually exclusive, but tended to complement one another. Some studies suggested that psychological empowerment was an affective derivative or consequence of structural empowerment. According to a review of the literature, employees who experienced both dimensions of empowerment reported greater job satisfaction and a reduction in workplace stress. Furthermore, studies have shown that positive affective and organizational outcomes resulted in increased productivity as well as reduced rates of turnover and absenteeism.

A review of the literature on law enforcement management and organizational efficacy reflected a growing concern that the paramilitary paradigm present in so many law enforcement agencies may be inconsistent with the changing needs of the mission and direction of policing today. Empirical findings indicated that the primary stressors for police officers may be job context rather than job content (Biggs, 2011). Some theorists believed that changing the bureaucratic and autocratic nature of traditional police organizations to one which included greater participation of police officers in decision making and governance would facilitate the evolving mission of law

enforcement and help to improve attitudes of police officers. Those advocating change in law enforcement organizations and practices may be encouraging the adoption of empowerment theory.

2.3 Empowerment Theory

Originating in the behavioral sciences and schools of management, empowerment theory has emerged as a new paradigm for improving organizational performance, supplanting in many instances the bureaucratic, top-down emphasis of scientific management theory (Wilkinson, 1997). Lawler, Mohrman, and Benson (2001) conducted a comprehensive fifteen-year longitudinal study of empowerment which demonstrated an increase in empowerment initiatives across organizations, professions, and studies.

Organizational theorists have suggested that empowerment theory enables organizations to move away from traditional management paradigms built on hierarchical authority, compliance and sanctions, top-down decision making, and limited employee power and autonomy to one that stresses shared governance, trusting relationships, enhanced employee autonomy, and maximization of individual expertise (Hyman and Mason, 1985; Walton, 1985). Empowerment theory is multidisciplinary, drawing up research in the social sciences, management and organizational theory, and the work of psychologists, most notably Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory (Watson, 1995). According to Wilkinson (1997), empowerment in the workplace serves as a mechanism for meeting or fulfilling the need for self-actualization and fulfillment, which fosters intrinsic motivation and higher performance.

However, despite the growing interest and research in empowerment theory, it still remains poorly defined and the topic of much debate (Geroy, Wright, & Anderson, 1998;

Psoinos & Smithson, 2002). Workplace empowerment has been defined or described in many ways: participative management, learning organizations, high performance organizations, shared governance or leadership, an engaged workforce, and democracy in the workplace. The variety of descriptors for workplace empowerment are due in part to the rich diversity of work settings and organizational leadership models (Bartunek & Spreitzer, 1999; Zimmerman & Rapport, 1988; Prasad & Eylon, 2001). For example, Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) found that more than 70 percent of the organizations they studied had adapted some type of empowerment initiative or approach. It appears that empowerment derives meaning and purpose based on contextual factors inherent in each organization.

In attempt to arrive at a simple but practical working definition of workplace empowerment, Wilkinson (1997) describes it as the redistribution of power within an organization. This definition is consistent with the focus of this study which sought to examine power distribution in a traditional police organizations. The level of empowerment is manifested most clearly in the internal organizational structures – those that appear to influence officer attitudes. Greasley et al. (2008) concur with this approach to empowerment theory, stating that power “is often redistributed by transferring control so that employees have the authority to make and implement their own decisions” (p. 41).

As the literature has shown, empowerment is not a single unified construct. It is a multifaceted, multidimensional, and highly variable construct that may take many forms. Wilkinson (1997) describes it as initiating organically-oriented changes that are designed to enhance or improve employee attitudes and performance through mechanistically-oriented structural changes. However, organizational leadership and management

scholars and practitioners have employed two different, but related, approaches to understanding empowerment: structural empowerment and psychological empowerment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005).

2.3.1 Structural Empowerment

Structural empowerment stems from the socio-political concept of democracy which has spawned so many of the present theories and practices regarding organizational behavior, participative management, and employee motivation. (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005; Lawler, 1986; Wilkinson, 1997). Structural empowerment depends upon shared power and decision making within an organization, with power being defined in part, as control over strategic organizational resources (Conger and Kanungo, 1988).

The structural empowerment perspective emphasizes the importance of moving away from top-down practices toward bottom-up and systemic forms of engagement (Bowen and Lawler, 1995). Thus, highly effective organizations distribute or infuse information, knowledge, power, and rewards throughout an organization, thus encouraging active engagement of employees at all levels. This, in turn, makes them feel more empowered (Lawler, 1986; 1992; 1996; Bowen and Lawler, 1995). The four elements of empowerment are interdependent and change concurrently. For example, if an organization increases the flow of information to its employees, but fails to provide opportunities for employees to exercise power or participate in decision making, training, etc., it severely limits empowerment. Lawler (1996) conceptualized the basic elements of employee involvement or empowerment as comprised of power, information, rewards, and knowledge. Lawler's (1988, 1992, 1996) findings are summarized below.

Power refers to participative management, shared governance, and increased decision-making authority. When employees perceive themselves as being granted decision making power, it results in increased job satisfaction, better decisions, and enhanced coordination and communication throughout the organization.

Information refers to the flow of communication within organizations, specifically those dealing with strategic planning, goal setting, and organizational performance. When information is disseminated throughout the organization, it improves communication and involvement among employees, and generates a higher quality of input and engagement.

Rewards refer to the intrinsic and extrinsic incentives provided to employees in an effort to elicit greater involvement or commitment, higher levels of performance, and more positive attitudes and interactions. As motivational tools, rewards need to be timely, associated with specific performance measures, and fairly administered.

Knowledge refers to training and professional development which enables employees to develop or enhance their skill sets and thus more effectively carry out their duties. It leads to improved performance and productivity. The higher the skill sets of employees, the greater the individual and overall organizational performance.

Research has also shown that practices which encourage high involvement of employees most often lead to higher organizational performance and outcomes (Ciavarella, 2003; Shadur et al, 1999; Vandenberg, Richardson, and Eastman, 1999). In addition, studies have found that initiatives designed to increase employee involvement and engagement resulted in higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and reduced levels of stress and turnovers (Arthur, 1992; Butts et al, 2009; Spreitzer and Mishra, 1999).

Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory of organizational empowerment postulated that employee attitudes and behavior are influenced more by organizational structure and structural factors than by personal predispositions and habits. The primary structural determinants, as Kanter sees it, are formal and informal power dynamics which limit or enhance employee access to information, resources, knowledge and training, and support. Formal power was derived from positions held within the organization were visible and considered essential to achieving organizational goals. Informal power involved vertical and lateral relationships, networks, and alliances within an organization that help employees to achieve organizational goals.

Information provides employees with the expertise, skills, and technical knowledge needed to be effective in their positions. It also provides them with a sense of meaning and purpose about the work they are doing which thus encourages greater commitment and involvement in helping to achieve organizational goals.

Support involves feedback and guidance which employees receive from their peers, superiors, and subordinates. It includes emotional encouragement, counseling, advice, and work-related assistance to help employees feel valued. Resources refers to the time, materials, tools, and equipment necessary to accomplish work objectives.

Opportunity refers to prospects for organizational growth and mobility that may arise. It also includes individual autonomy and avenues for learning and developing new job skills. Kanter (1977, 1993) believes empowering structures increase employee motivation and enable them to motivate others. Conversely, employees lacking access to

empowering structures see themselves as powerless and constrained by rules and practices that keep them outside the decision making loop, making them feel less committed to organizational goals.

A significant body of research over the years established correlations between organizational empowerment and significant increases in employee job satisfaction (Laschinger et al., 2001, 2004) and greatly decreased levels of job stress (Laschinger and Havens, 1996; Lashinger et al., 2001). Kanter's (1977, 1993) construct was found to be predictive of employee commitment (McDermott et al., 1996), work effectiveness (Laschinger & Wong, 1999), and organizational trust and respect (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Biggs, 2011).

Some organizational theorists believed the structural empowerment perspective to be somewhat limited, as it examines empowerment from the organizational perspective rather than empowerment perceived and experienced by employees (Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005). This assertion is largely supported by Laschinger et al. (2004) who argue that Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory focused on the employee's role, power, and opportunities within an organization, and not on their attitudes, values, and emotions- a psychological perspective. Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) argue that in some instances, empowering structures of power, knowledge, information, and rewards were shared with employees, yet they still did not feel empowered. Conversely, in other situations, employees without empowering structures in place felt empowered. These concerns spawned the emergence of the psychological perspective of empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005).

2.3.2 Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment is defined in the research as a set of cognitions and perceptions held by employees with regard to their roles at work (Spreitzer, 1992; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). It is rooted in theories of work characteristics and enrichment (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Lawler, 1992). Bandura's (1977) social-cognitive theory, which proposed that learning is the acquisition of knowledge through a cognitive processing of information received, lent considerable support for psychological empowerment. Bandura referred to his social-cognitive construct as the learning that takes place from social interaction and described the process as influencing motivations, actions, and attitudes.

Basing their approach on Bandura's model, Conger and Kanungo (1988) posit that empowerment was not limited to structural interventions and protocol, but was in fact an enabling process that enhanced employee efficacy. Building on this research, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) define empowerment as intrinsic motivation comprised of four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and choice (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Biggs, 2011). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argue that the individual cognitions are highly influenced by the work environment.

Building on the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model, Spreitzer's (1995, 1996) research focused on empowerment in a psychological context. She considers it a composite of individual thoughts, attitudes, and perceptions that affected work behavior. Spreitzer posits that psychological empowerment was more of a cognitive process than an organizational structural matter. She believed this psychological state of mind was necessary for employees to perceive and experience empowerment.

Spreitzer et al. (1997) assert that there is a consensus in the literature on two empirically distinct empowerment constructs; structural and psychological. They argue that psychological empowerment was responsible for mediating the relationship between structural empowerment and individual behavior in the workplace. According to Spreitzer (1995), when individuals perceived their work environment as “providing opportunities for, rather than constraints on, individual behavior, they feel empowered” (p. 607). Neilsen (1986) agrees, contending that organizational or structural empowerment was not sufficient to promote changes in individual behavior. He argues that a personal sense of empowerment was necessary to produce desired behavioral outcomes. Several studies distinguished between structural and psychological empowerment, finding that structural empowerment was actually an antecedent of psychological empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Lawler, Mohrman & Ledford, 1992; Spreitzer, 1996; Spreitzer et al, 1997). Meta-analyses of empowerment research over the past twenty years have demonstrated empirical support for structural empowerment practices as key predictors of psychological empowerment (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Siebert, Wang, & Cortwright, 2011).

Spreitzer (1992) identified a set of empowering dimensions, similar to those described by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). Specifically, she came to define psychological empowerment in the workplace as an employee’s perception of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Biggs, 2011).

According to Spreitzer (1995), meaning was described as the congruence between the employee’s role at work and their beliefs, values, and behaviors. Competence was viewed as an employee’s ability to perform his work duties with skill. Self-determination

was defined as the employee's perception of choice in initiating and regulating their own actions. Impact referred to the degree to which an employee can influence the strategic, administrative, or operational outcomes in their work organization (Spreitzer, 1995; Biggs, 2011). Later, Spreitzer developed and validated a four-dimensional scale that has been successfully employed to measure the construct of psychological empowerment.

Several studies employing Spreitzer's (2005) instrument have found that employee perception of psychological empowerment was positively associated with job satisfaction (Spreitzer, 2005; Biggs, 2011; Butts et al., 2009; Carless, 2004; Laschinger et al., 2001; Spreitzer et al., 1997; Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000). Research results suggest that employee job stress was negatively correlated with psychological empowerment (Butts et al., 2009; Laschinger et al.; Spreitzer et al., 1997).

Only one study was found to have employed Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment instrument in a law enforcement context. Winegar (2003) studied the perception of psychological empowerment among 352 police officers from 20 law enforcement agencies in Oregon. Winegar (2003) theorized that officer perception of the work environment (independent variables) was predictive of officer perception of psychological empowerment (dependent variables) (Winegar, 2003; Biggs, 2011). Winegar operationalized the law enforcement work environment according to six constructs: organizational role (specific work responsibilities), feedback on performance, training, job enrichment, information, and control (officer perception of the imposed work constraints within the agency) (Winegar, 2003; Biggs, 2011). He found a relationship between perception of work environment and perception of psychological empowerment. Specifically, Winegar (2003) found the work environment (structural

empowerment) was significantly correlated with psychological empowerment, particularly with regard to perceived impact and self-determination by the employee. However, he did not find a significant relationship to exist between the work environment and the psychological empowerment dimensions of meaning and competence. Winegar (2003) concluded that, while the model was proven to be valid, and demonstrated the applicability of the psychological empowerment scale in a policing context, the work environment construct required further development and study.

2.4 Job Satisfaction

Several theories of organizational behavior assume there to be a reciprocal relationship between employee attitudes and behaviors and the work setting (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Employee job satisfaction is one of the most noticeable components of this reciprocal relationship (Russell et al., 2004). However, job satisfaction still lacks a unifying definition, despite being prevalent in industrial-organizational psychology research (Gruneberg, 1979). For the purposes of this study, the researcher relies on Specter's (1997) definition of job satisfaction as "simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (p.6).

Job satisfaction has been largely determined by peoples' immediate work environment. For example, Carless (2004) states that job satisfaction was a psychological state of mind, reflecting an affective response to the workplace. This approach aligned nicely with Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Characteristic Model that proposed employees who perceive and experience the critical psychological states of meaning, feelings of responsibility, and knowledge in the work environment were generally more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts. In the same vein, Herzberg's (1968)

motivation-hygiene theory emphasized the effects of the work environment on an employee's level of job satisfaction (Lawton, Hickman, Piquero, & Greene, 2000; Zhao et al., 1999).

2.5 Job Stress-Burnout

Occupational stress has been defined in the literature as an imbalance between individual resources and workplace or environmental demands (Cherniss, 1980). According to Stinchcomb (2004), stress occurs when demands placed on an individual exceeds their capacity to avoid, alter, or control those demands (Stinchcomb, 2004; Biggs, 2011). A review of the relevant literature confirms the relationship between workplace factors and job stress (Burke, 1988; Leong, Furnham, Cary, & Cooper, 1996; Lashinger et al., 2004; Slate et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2002). However, some researchers suggest that workplace factors related to stress may differ and that the relationship may, in fact, depend to a high degree on the context under study (Rees, 1995; Young & Cooper, 1995). As an illustration, Sparks & Cooper (1999) studied 7, 099 employees from 13 different occupations and found significant associations between a number of workplace factors and indicators of employee distress, including anxiety and depression (Sparks & Cooper 1999; Biggs, 2011). However, Sparks and Cooper (1999) also found that the quality of the social environment in the workplace was likewise associated with job stress. In addition, Nelson and Burke (2000) found a link between lack of power, role ambiguity, and role conflicts and employee stress.

Job Stress was also found to impair employee functioning and job performance in the workplace (Fairbrother & Warn, 2003). Negative effects included reduced work performance, decreased commitment to the organization or its goals, reduced initiative by

employees, and increased hard-lining attitudes or rigidity of thought (Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Matson & Ivancevich, 1982). High levels of work-related stress have been traditionally been associated with low levels of job satisfaction (Landesbergis, 1988; Terry, Neilsen, & Perchard, 1993). Furthermore, research suggests that organizational factors may directly affect job stress and job satisfaction (Laschinger et al., 2001; Lyne, Barrett, Williams, & Coaley, 2000). Generally speaking, work-related stress is typically viewed as an antecedent of job satisfaction, and the two phenomena are related but very distinct constructs (Stanton, Bachiochi, Robie, Perez, & Smith, 2002).

Chronic job stress is characterized as burnout on the job (Cherniss, 1980, Maslach, 2003). Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) argue that burnout represents a crisis or critical stage in a person's relationship with their work environment and that it varied in intensity from engagement to disengagement to burnout. Engagement was defined as an energetic state in which an employee feels highly confident about their ability to do their work; whereas, burnout depicted a state of exhaustion in which the employee became increasingly cynical about their job, their work environment, and their perceived position in the organization (Maslach, et al. 1996).

Workplace burnout is comprised of three parts: "emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a reduced sense of accomplishment" (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 402). Emotional exhaustion occurs when an employee's emotional resources are low or depleted. Depersonalization is present when an employee is cynical about their workplace environment and attempts to distance themselves from others in the organization. A reduced sense of accomplishment reflects an employee's perception or sense of their value to the organization, most notably demonstrating reduced work

efficacy and low or negligible contributions. Lee and Ashforth (1996) conducted a meta-analysis of work-related burnout and found it to be highly related to the work environment and job demands, such as time pressure and work overload. In addition, burnout has been associated with conflicting demands and lack of autonomy in the workplace (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Maslach et al., 2001). Maslach and Jackson (1981) have found burnout and job satisfaction to be inversely related, but believe that the sequential nature of the relationship is completely speculative, with each having predictive influence (Biggs, 2011).

2.6 Structural Empowerment, Psychological Empowerment, Job Satisfaction and Job Stress-Burnout

Bowen and Ostroff (2004) observe that much of the research on empowerment has been limited to trying to prove statistically significant associations between empowering work systems and employee behavioral outcomes, without much attention being paid to the processes that produce desired employee outcomes. As such, very little work has been done to explore the relationship between structural and psychological empowerment and employee attitudes and behavior (Butts et al., 2009; Laschinger et al., 2004). This approach not been tested in a law enforcement context, but is assumed to apply to law enforcement as well.

Recently, Butts et al. (2009) conducted a unique study in which they employed a structural empowerment approach based on Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) employee high involvement theory along with measures operationalized by Vandenberg, Richardson, and Eastman (1999). Their findings confirmed a four-factor construct. Butts et al. (2009) were exploring how empowering work systems may operate in conjunction with

Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment instrument as a predictor of high employee involvement. They postulated that psychological empowerment functioned primarily as a mediating construct between employee involvement and employee attitudes, particularly job satisfaction and job stress.

Butts et al. (2009) also employed organizational support as a moderating variable in their studies, as it was defined and measured by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa (1986). This was not a sub-construct in Lawler's original theory. Eisenberger et al., 1986) found organizational support to be a unidimensional construct. Their findings suggested that employees' perceptions of organizational support were largely based on their beliefs that the organization valued their contributions and cared about their well-being. This perceived level of support was found to drive a social exchange interaction in which the employee's level of commitment to the organization was associated with their perceptions of how committed the organization was to them personally (Eisenbarger et al.). Butts et al. (2009) justified their use of organizational support in their model, stating that: "because of the beneficial reciprocity in behaviors suggested by theories of organizational support...employee perceptions of a supportive work environment may be particularly important, especially with regard to empowerment and its effects on employee outcomes" (p. 123).

In their study, Butt et al. (2009) collected data from 1,723 workers at 21 retail centers, owned by the same corporation, and located in the Southeastern United States. They found a positive relationship between employee perception of empowering organizational structures (i.e., structural empowerment) and psychological empowerment. They also found that psychological empowerment appeared to mediate the relationship

between employee involvement structures and employee attitudinal outcomes (Biggs, 2011). Furthermore, they found that psychological empowerment was positively associated with job satisfaction and negatively related to job stress. In addition, they concluded that empowerment demonstrated a stronger positive relationship with employee outcomes when organizational support was perceived as high rather than low (Butts et al., 2009; Biggs, 2011). Their findings suggest that organizations can sustain healthy work environments by implementing empowering structures and protocols offering greater employee support.

Kanter's (1977, 1993) organizational empowerment theory has also been a powerful tool for investigating the relationship between structural and psychological empowerment and employee attitude and behavior. To illustrate, utilizing Kanter's theory, Laschinger (1996) derived a construct for the express purpose of testing structural empowerment. In a subsequent cross-sectional study, Laschinger et al. (2001) tested a model linking work empowerment to job strain and job satisfaction for nursing staff. The researchers theorized a positive relationship between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. Also, by using Spreitzer's (1995) instrument, they could demonstrate that this relationship would, in fact, positively affect job satisfaction. Laschinger et al. (2001) predicted that psychological empowerment would result in decreased feelings of job strain or job stress, which would enhance overall job satisfaction.

Laschinger et al. (2001) randomly selected 300 male and 300 female nurses employed in hospitals in Ontario, Canada to participate in their study. Their study yielded 404 usable questionnaires. As they had predicted, their findings demonstrated that

structural empowerment had a direct positive effect on psychological empowerment, and that psychological empowerment had a direct positive effect on job satisfaction (Biggs, 2011). They also found that psychological empowerment strongly influenced the level of job strain or stress experienced by the nursing staff. However, Laschinger et al. (2001) did not find that job strain independently predicted job satisfaction; rather job satisfaction was found to be directly predicted by psychological empowerment (Biggs, 2011).

Laschinger explained “that this apparent contradiction is resolved by considering the fact that past research has typically looked simply at the relationship between job strain and job satisfaction and has not included structural and psychological empowerment” (Laschinger et al., 2001, p. 268). They concluded that increasing employee access to workplace empowerment structures tended to increase employee feelings of personal empowerment. The increase in personal empowerment, in turn, appeared to reduce job strain and increase job satisfaction (Biggs, 2011).

In a subsequent longitudinal study, Laschinger et al. (2004) contacted the same nurses who had participated in their previous study, obtaining a sample size of 198. Laschinger et al. (2004) postulated that changes in employee perceptions of empowerment would or should predict changes in job satisfaction. Specifically, they theorized that structural empowerment would enable the nurses to have greater access to resources and support and thus report higher job satisfaction. Conversely, Laschinger et al. (2004) believed that nurses lacking increased access to empowering structures would become more dissatisfied with their jobs over time. Furthermore, they believed that the

influence of structural empowerment on job satisfaction would be mediated to some degree by the nurses' perceptions of psychological empowerment, as measured by Spreitzer's (1995) instrument (Biggs, 2011).

Laschinger's et al. (2004) study supported the proposition that changes in perceptions of access to structural empowerment influenced changes in perception of both psychological empowerment and job satisfaction (Biggs, 2011). However, the authors found that changes in psychological empowerment were not predictive of any changes in job satisfaction. Laschinger et al. (2004) concluded that "perhaps people have dispositional tendencies to respond in a particular way to work that are stable over time...perhaps people tend to view work similarly, regardless of circumstances and the passage of time" (p. 539).

In their study of college nursing instructors, Sarmiento, Laschinger and Iwasiw (2003), found higher levels of empowerment to be directly associated with lower levels of burnout as well as with greater job satisfaction. More recently, O'Brien (2011) studied these relationships in a sample of nurses working in outpatient hemodialysis facilities and determined that there was a significant inverse relationship between structural empowerment and burnout in the sample population.

Laschinger et al. (2004) concluded that changes in structural empowerment influenced job satisfaction in the nursing profession, and that their findings very likely would be generalizable to other professions. They conditioned their conclusion, stating that "...to the best of our knowledge, research using Kanter's model has been tested

primarily within nursing. Kanter would argue that structural empowerment should help all groups” (p. 539). This study tested whether these models and findings would be applicable to the law enforcement profession.

2.7 The Traditional Police Organizational Environment

The current structure of contemporary law enforcement organizations is often described as pyramidal, with ascending levels of hierarchical authority (Reiter, 1999). The higher one’s position within the pyramid, the greater the authority wielded by the holder of that position. Thus, power and authority decrease as we move down the pyramidal structure. This heavily top-down organizational structured creates a military-style ranking system with power concentrated at the top. Communication is theoretically conducted through a two- way chain-of-command, but decision making authority remains the domain of the upper level ranks (Reiter, 1999; French & Stewart, 2001; Biggs, 2011; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006).

The paramilitary structure was adopted by leaders in law enforcement as part of the intense reforms of the early 20th century which were intended to address social unrest, crime, bribery and corruption, and political interference which threatened the credibility of American law enforcement (Uchida, 1997; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006). Organizational leadership and management was heavily influenced by the scientific management theories of Frederick Taylor and Max Weber which proposed that optimal productivity could be realized through worker discipline and control facilitated by the implementation of an authoritarian hierarchy (Uchida, 1997; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006; Biggs, 2011).

This organizational structure predominates in law enforcement today, primarily due to its role in establishing and preserving the professionalization of American policing (Uchida, 1997; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006). Yet, Johnson (1994) posits that the structure of law enforcement agencies may be constrained and underdeveloped, and further argue that practitioners in the field of criminal justice rarely examine these issues.

King (2003) reported that 383 of the largest responding local police agencies (i.e., municipal agencies with 100 or more full-time sworn officers) had a mean and/or median of six command ranks. Gaines, Kaune, and Miller (2005) observe that this structure required nearly every officer to be directly accountable to a superior in order to maintain strict discipline and control, and limit abuses. This, in fact, had been a major goal of early law enforcement reformers.

Rasor (1999) and Sparrow (1988) contend that excessive rank structure is one of the primary defective facets of law enforcement agencies today. However, King (2003) differs somewhat, stating that while researchers and observers have pointed out general problems with police organizations, their observations and critiques have been insufficient when it comes to identifying the problems inherent in hierarchically ranked organizational structures. King further stated that police agencies, like other organizations, are complex systems of interrelated parts and that the perceived problems with rank structure may be the result of other under-examined organizational factors. A number of scholars have described the authoritarian approach adopted by law enforcement leaders as being focused on the control of subordinate officers (Clark, 2004; Johnson & Cox, 2004; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Van Maanen (1978) observes that management which used various control mechanisms such as rules and policies, was

conducive to police management, because behavior was strictly regulated in an attempt to create predictability, conformity, and regularity. Umiker (1999) argues that exerting strong control over subordinates encouraged leaders to believe they could control or determine events and outcomes. This belief was consistent with findings by Wilson (1989), that the primary focus of police management was control because officers typically wield considerable authority and are virtually unsupervised while out on patrol. It was disturbing to find in Ruess-Ianni's 1983 study that the basic administrative view of line officers was that they were "impersonal resources to be used" (p. 7), inferring that the leadership process was somehow dehumanizing and purely based on transactional rather than transformational leadership principles.

The prevailing paramilitary structure in law enforcement created a significant paradox, due to the highly discretionary nature of policing, particularly at the line officer level (Reiter, 1999; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006). The majority of service calls are handled by line officers who act without supervisory presence at the call scene. The officer is free to choose from several proscribed options, based on the specific facts of the call, to bring the issue to resolution (Biggs, 2011).

In a recent study of 140 reporting agencies, Lane (2006) found that the average supervisor to officer ratio (the span of control) is 1 to 7 (p. 79). However, the span of control can be greater, depending on circumstances. Police officers supervise themselves as they tend to their duties, yet have little to no influence on administrative decisions which determine policy formulation, operational modality, or training methodology (Gilmartin, 2002; Reiter, 1999; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Biggs, 2011).

Authorities have justified the need for top-down, control-oriented supervision in police agencies on the basis that it has contributed to some degree in professionalizing the American police (Johnson & Cox, 2004; Wilson, 1989). Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006) have suggested that police administrators may become overzealous about enforcing conformity and accountability, due to incidents of scandals, abuse of authority, charges of inequity, and public scrutiny and media criticism of law enforcement. Thus, police leaders have tended to be strongly resistive to adopting alternative management philosophies (Biggs, 2011).

According to Gottchalk (2008) and Sklansky (2006), police leaders are beginning to reassess traditional management practices. The findings of this report were supported by Steinheider and Wuestewald (2012), who conducted a survey of American police chiefs and senior commanders (n = 294). They found that 50% of respondents reported including line officers in important organizational decision-making, while 70% said they provided mechanisms and procedures for line officers to express their opinions and suggestions on a regular basis. These findings suggest a growing receptivity toward empowering practices among law enforcement leaders. However, Steinheider and Wuestewald (2012) also reported that “most employee involvement initiatives in policing have emphasized informal officer participation via suggestion systems or rudimentary job-level input” (p. 46).

2.7.1 The Traditional Police Organization and Community Policing

The police control paradox is coming under increasing scrutiny with the widespread efforts of police leaders to implement and sustain community-oriented policing (COP) (Biggs, 2011). Basically, this strategy expands the police mandate beyond

the traditional focus of fighting crime to community support efforts which seek to address the fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990; Biggs, 2011). Police officers are facing new challenges as they attempt to solve community problems using creative and innovative measures (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux). Community policing is predicated on the formation of a partnership between police and the community which will allow average citizens to have input into the law enforcement process. By creating this partnership, it is hoped that contemporary problems will be resolved through an amicable, decentralized and highly personalized approach (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux).

However, more than a decade ago, Lord (1996) cautioned that few American police agencies have been able to successfully engage in and sustain a strong community policing program. This appears to remain an accurate assessment of the situation, even today. Recently, Rosenberg et al. (2008) observe that “community policing strives to change the very nature of policing...implementing such changes has proved difficult on a number of levels” (p. 291). Furthermore, citing Wilms (1996), they stated that “the tenants upon which the culture of traditional policing are based are challenged through consensual agreement and commitment to change” (p. 291). As Craine (2007) observes, radical changes in the normative structure and value system of an organization severely challenges prior knowledge and comfort levels of staff (Biggs, 2011). Jones (1981) argues that structural elements must be aligned with an organization’s values and goals in order for it to effectively implement change. This finding is supported by other researchers, who concluded that the community policing philosophy requires officers to have the authority to take decisive and innovative action and that this approach is in

direct conflict with the traditional authoritarian management structure which mandates top-down decision making and strict adherence to rules and procedures (Dwyer & Laufersweiler-Dwyer, 2004; Kennedy, 2003; McCoy, 2006; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006; Biggs, 2011). Furthermore, Walsh and Vito (2004) observe that while many police agencies assert that they are engaged in some form of community policing, most are “still bureaucratically structured and delivering their services based on the strategies of the rational-legal bureaucratic model” (p. 26). Wycoff and Skogan (1994) found that changes from traditional authoritarian management practices to more open participative management practices facilitated external changes from traditional police responses to proactive community policing. In the same vein, Adams et al. (2002) studied COP initiatives in six mid-sized to small police agencies in North Carolina, and found that officers who perceived their agency as practicing participatory management were more positive about community policing (Adams et al, 2002; Biggs, 2011). Similar results were reported by Giacomazzi et al. (2004) who studied COP initiatives in 15 law enforcement agencies, and found that empowering officers to make decisions is critical to the success of community policing efforts (Giacomazzi et al., 2004; Biggs, 2011). .

Eck and Rosenbaum (1994) concluded that the greatest value of COP is social equity because it creates fairness in the delivery of police responses and services across social classes and fosters trust between the police and the community. However, as noted in Biggs (2011), these researchers also contend, in regard to the relationship between the internal mechanisms of the police organization and front line officers, that the equity of COP “is more about participatory management and power sharing” (p.12). A study of

community policing in the Racine, Wisconsin Police Department by Rosenberg et al. (2008) found that upper command is often reluctant to surrender decision-making authority or grant greater autonomy to officers.

In conclusion, the relationship between the current police organizational paradigm and community policing is summated by Pelfrey (2004) who notes that in the majority of police agencies a small number of officers assume this role of service delivery and are treated as a specialized unit, while the majority of officers continue to serve in reactive patrol. Thus, this author concludes that the previous law enforcement shift from the political era to the reform era was a “true shift in philosophy” (p. 596), but the shift to community policing is not a true philosophical change, but rather has only caused a “second layer of concepts to be placed on top of reform era policing” (p. 597).

2.8 Police Officer Job Satisfaction

Research into police officer job satisfaction and organizational environment is a relatively new area of study (Buzawa, Austin, & Bannon, 1994; Zhao et al., 1999; Biggs, 2011). Bennett (1997) notes that job satisfaction is a “neglected but important and timely topic in police studies” (p. 296). Zhao et al. (1999) posit that research into police job satisfaction encompasses two distinct constructs. As reported in Biggs (2011), the first construct is focused on explanatory demographic variables, and the second construct emphasizes the importance of an employee’s work environment. The latter construct served as the theoretical base for this research.

2.8.1 Demographic Variables and Officer Job Satisfaction

Currently, much of the research concerning the impact on officer satisfaction in the traditional management environment has been limited to testing demographic

characteristics, such as age, ethnicity, gender, education, type of assignment and length of tenure, as explanatory variables (Biggs, 2011; Dantzker, 1992, 1994; Zhao et al., 1999). However, Carlan (2007) and Zhao et al. (1999) found that many of the research studies using demographics have had conflicting or inconsistent results, so it has not been possible to ascertain what their exact relationship may be to job satisfaction. This research explored the relationships between these demographic variables: education level, length of service, work assignment, agency size, gender and ethnicity, and job satisfaction (Biggs, 2011). Carlan (2007) asserts that “job satisfaction fluctuates among agencies and individuals, yet one constant of job satisfaction research is that demographics contribute little to the explanation of this emotional phenomenon” (p. 75).

A review of the literature concerning police officer education status and job satisfaction yielded mixed results. In an early study by Leftkowitz (1974), patrol officers with some college education evidenced less job satisfaction than their peers who had not gone to college. However, another early study by Griffin, Dunbar, and McGill (1978) found no significant relationship between levels of education and job dissatisfaction among police officers. A few years later, Buzawa (1984) did find a correlation between education and job satisfaction among police officers in the Detroit, Michigan and Oakland, California Police Departments, though it did not show a consistent linear relationship (Buzawa, 1984; Biggs, 2011).

Two studies conducted by Dantzker (1992, 1994) were especially puzzling. In the first study, Dantzker (1992) theorized that college-educated patrol officers would become less satisfied with policing as their tenure increased than would their colleagues with high school diplomas. Dantzker found these variables to be inversely related; that is, college-

educated officers appeared to experience high job satisfaction in the first five years of their career. However, their levels of job satisfaction began to decrease as their tenure increased (Dantzker, 1992; Biggs, 2011). It seemed that college-educated officers, in general, were less satisfied with their jobs than officers with a high school diploma. In the second study, Dantzker's (1994) findings contradicted those of his previous study as no significant relationship was found between education level and job satisfaction (Dantzker, 1994; Biggs, 2011).

In a recent study, Krimmel and Gormley (2003) found higher job satisfaction among officers with postsecondary education. However, Carlan (2007) and Zhao et al. (1999) found no significant relationship between job satisfaction and education level. Thus, the possible relationship between education level and job satisfaction for police officers remains unclear (Biggs, 2011).

Interestingly, research that explored the relationship between officer tenure and job satisfaction yielded more consistent findings. Buzawa (1984) compared officer age with years of service and found that as age and years of service climbed, job satisfaction declined. Burke (1989) theorized that police officers in the intermediate stages of their career would experience less job satisfaction and greater job stress than officers in either early or late stages of their careers (Burke, 1989; Biggs, 2011). Burke employed career stages (less than 1 year, 1-3 years, 5-15 years and over 15 years) as the independent variables. The researcher found that the intermediate career group, consisting of officers with 5-15 years of service, did have higher levels of work stress and lower job satisfaction than did the other three cohorts (Burke, 1989; cited in Biggs, 2011).

More recently, Zhao et al. (1999) found years of service to be negatively associated with job satisfaction, while Mire (2005) reported that new officers had higher levels of job satisfaction and more senior officers experienced lower levels of job satisfaction (Zhao et al, 1999; Mire, 2005; Biggs, 2011). Mire (2005) found that the lowest perceptions of job satisfaction were reported by officers with 10 to 15 years of service. In contrast, this researcher found that officer job satisfaction began to increase beyond 15 years of service (Mire, 2005; as cited in Biggs, 2011).

Several research studies in law enforcement and community policing contexts have proposed a correlation between work or duty assignment and job satisfaction. For example, Hoath, Schneider and Starr (1998) investigated the relationships between job satisfaction and police career orientation, job assignment, and tenure. They commented that few studies had examined these relationships concurrently (Hoath et al., 1998; Biggs, 2011), and found that officers who worked in investigations and administration were more satisfied with their jobs than officers assigned to patrol. Hoath et al. (1998) also found that police officers who had low seniority appeared to experience greater job satisfaction than their veteran peers. These findings were consistent with later studies by Slate et al. (2007) who reported that officers who were not assigned to patrol duties were more likely to report that they were satisfied with their jobs (Slate et al, 2007; as cited in Biggs, 2011).

Research which explored relationships between job satisfaction and gender yielded mixed findings that were largely inconclusive (Buzawa, 1984; Dantzker, 1994; Krimmel & Gormley, 2003; Zhao et al., 1999). Miller, Mire and Kim (2009) suggest that a common assumption exists that female officers are less satisfied with their jobs than

male officers, and that this assumption may stem from the fact that policing or law enforcement is a male-dominated profession (Mire et al, 2009; as cited in Biggs, 2011).

Likewise, the literature is inconclusive with regard to the possible relationship between officer race and job satisfaction. Buzawa (1984) found race was significantly related to job satisfaction. According to Buzawa's findings, African American officers reported experiencing higher levels of job satisfaction than white officers. However, contradictory findings were reported by Dantzker (1994) and Zhou et al. (1999) who found race was not a significant predictor of the level of job satisfaction. Miller et al. (1999) raise a word of caution in interpreting such disparate findings, stating that studies of race and job satisfaction for law enforcement personnel may suffer from sampling bias as a majority of studies have examined only African American and White Officers.

2.8.2 The Traditional Police Environment and Officer Job Satisfaction

Research in traditional policing contexts has demonstrated that organizational variables of job context, rather than demographics or job content factors, are the strongest predictors of officer job satisfaction (Biggs, 2011). Few studies appeared to assess the relationship between work context and job satisfaction in law enforcement (Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001; Zhao et al., 1999).

Traditional management practices seem to have a consistent negative effect on police officer job satisfaction (Biggs, 2011). For example, the studies mentioned earlier by Buzawa (1984) and Buzawa et al. (1994), found that over a period of ten years, officer job dissatisfaction was found to be unrelated to occupational characteristics. Instead, they found officer job dissatisfaction to be correlated with traditional

management practices, a lack of officer autonomy, and a perceived lack of opportunity for career advancement (as cited in Biggs, 2011). Interestingly, Halsted, Bromley, & Cochran (2000) found that higher levels of autonomy to coincide with greater job satisfaction. More recently, Carlan (2007) found a positive correlation between officer perception of autonomy and job satisfaction.

Organizational support has been found by several researchers to be a predictor of job satisfaction. For example, a study by Davey, Orbst, and Sheehan (2001) revealed that support within the police organization was a strong predictor of job satisfaction. Thus, higher levels of support resulted in greater levels of job satisfaction. A longitudinal study by Brough and Frame (2004) and a study by Dowler (2005) suggested that strong supervisory support was predictive of increased levels of officer job satisfaction.

The size of an agency (i.e., the number of officers employed) appeared to have an effect on officer job satisfaction. Idson (1990) and Dantzker (1997) observed that larger organizations tended to be more rigidly structured and this inflexibility might have a negative effect on job satisfaction. Dantzker (1997) operationalized agency size as a predictor variable and officer job satisfaction as the criterion variable in a sample of fourteen urban police agencies. As Biggs (2011) noted in his research study, Dantzker categorized department size into three groups: Group 1 (fewer than 100 officers); Group 2 (101 to 500 officers); and Group 3 (More than 500 officers). In a survey measuring officer job satisfaction, Dantzker examined the relationship of job satisfaction with certain administrative functions such as training, administrative decisions, supervisor support and assistance. He also explored job satisfaction vis-à-vis the quantity and quality of equipment resources available. Findings indicated that Group 1 (ie. smaller agencies

with fewer than 100 officers) demonstrated higher levels of job satisfaction when interacting with supervisors and administrative functionaries, whereas officers in larger agencies (Group 2 and Group 3) were dissatisfied with administrative relationships (there was no significant statistical difference between Groups 2 and 3). Dantzker also found that Group 1 was the most satisfied with their equipment resources, while Group 3 was the least satisfied. Regarding the global job satisfaction scale, Dantzker concluded that Group 1 was, once again, the most satisfied, while the other two groups were equally dissatisfied. In summary, these findings suggested that there may be an inverse relationship between agency size and job satisfaction.

Innovative research was undertaken by Zhao et al. (1999) to explore organizational environment and officer job satisfaction. Since other studies had found demographic variables as predictors to be inconclusive, they believed it plausible to employ a construct design from the school of management. Zhao et al. used Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey (1975) to operationalize the influences of the traditional police environment as independent variables. They used the Job Descriptive Index, developed by Smith (1974) to measure the dependent variable of officer job satisfaction. Zhao et al. reported that job satisfaction seemed to be innately tied to an officer's work environment. Also, they found that job satisfaction was strongly correlated with officer job autonomy and effective communication with supervisors. This study suggested the applicability of employing theoretical management constructs in a law enforcement context.

2.8.3 Officer Job Satisfaction and Empowering Initiatives

Criminal justice scholars agree that modern police agencies are placing increasing emphasis on implementing community policing initiatives (Lawton et al., 2000). In general, research findings have indicated a positive relationship between officer job satisfaction and community policing assignments (Lurigio & Rosenbaum, 1994; Lurigio & Skogan, 1998). But the nature of this relationship remains enigmatic (Lawton et al.). To explain this, Cordner (1999), Russell and MacLachlan (1999), and Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) posited that the participative and empowering climate inherent to community policing activities tends to lead to higher levels of officer job satisfaction. However, others have argued that no direct relationship exists between COP activities and officer job satisfaction. Adams et al. (2000) and Giacomazzi et al. (2004) contended that job satisfaction is more closely tied to the participative management aspects of community policing rather than the actual service delivery. They further reported that empowering practices tended to make community policing more appealing to officers and were in fact, influential in operationalizing and sustaining the COP service strategy.

Pelfrey (2004) compared job satisfaction between traditional and COP officers in the Philadelphia Police Department, employing work assignment as an independent variable. Pelfrey employed the Job Diagnostic Survey (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), as a moderator of dependent variables which included policing style, perceptions of job impact, time allocation, and information usage (Pelfrey 2004; Biggs, 2011). Pelfrey found that COP officers reported higher levels of job satisfaction than their counterparts in traditional patrol duties due to a heightened sense of autonomy. Pelfrey states that

“individuals placed in positions with higher autonomy, who have the ability to affect positive outcomes, and who perceive positive outcomes will experience more work-related job satisfaction” (p. 594). An important finding was there being no significant difference in how traditional and COP officers perceived policing responsibilities and enforcement actions. Pelfrey attributes this to the fact that “both groups have a foundation of belief in the traditional practices of law enforcement” (p. 596) and this may be reinforced by the inherent organizational reward structure, which advocates the traditional role of policing (i.e. arrests and citations). Finally, this study demonstrated the viability of behavioral management theories in law enforcement studies.

Few strategic empowerment initiatives have been found in either the private sector or policing domains, as pointed out by Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008. However, the findings from two notable studies proved that organizational context is more predictive of officer job satisfaction than work content.

The first research effort was a seminal longitudinal study by Wycoff and Skogan (1994), which examined the Quality Leadership initiative employed by the Madison, Wisconsin Police Department. The Quality Leadership initiative was unique in that it simultaneously employed both strategic participative management with COP operations. Findings revealed that participative leadership rather than involvement in COP was responsible for increased levels of officer job satisfaction. They concluded that internal organizational changes to a more empowering participative management environment promoted external changes to community policing.

More recently, Wuestewald and Steinhieder (2006) conducted a pioneering study involving the Leadership Team initiative at the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma Police

Department. This initiative was concurrent with community policing strategies the agency was actively pursuing. The Leadership Team, comprised of members representing all ranks and assignments within the agency, was empowered to make critical policy and strategic decisions for the organization. As reported earlier by Wycoff and Skogan (1994), this study also concluded that a positive relationship existed between an empowering work environment and job satisfaction apart from community policing. Wuestewald and Steinhieder (2006) also found that the empowerment initiative tended to increase officer commitment to COP.

2.9 Police Officer Job Stress and Burnout

Job content and job context represent two recognized constructs of police stress (McCreary & Thompson, 2006). The former refers to aspects of police work inherent to the profession, including death, victimization, and violence (Dietrich & Smith, 1986), varying levels of workload (Coman & Evans, 1991; Duckworth, 1987), long and demanding work hours (Cooper, Davidson, & Robinson, 1988), and making court appearances (Coman & Evans). The latter construct concerns aspects of policing present in the internal environment.

These stressors include lack of managerial support (Brown & Campbell, 1990; Kiely & Peek, 2002; Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004), poor communication within the organization, especially between administrative officers and line officers (Brown & Campbell; Sims, Ruiz, Weaver, & Harvey, 2005). These stressors also include resource constraints, notably shortages in equipment and staffing (Shanahan, 1992), excessive

paperwork, and cumbersome administrative functions and rigid procedures (Kroes, 1985). These content stressors foster officer perceptions of powerlessness and feeling undervalued (Mitchell, 1990; Shanahan).

Recent studies have concluded that major stressors in law enforcement tend to be organizational in nature rather than operational (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Gains et al., 1991; Reiser, 1974; Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003; Slate et al., 2007; Stinchcomb, 2004; Zhao et al., 2002). Cullen, Link, Travis, and Lemming (1983) found that law enforcement officers view their work as having a greater potential for violence than may actually be the case. When asked about incidents involving human suffering and danger, officers seldom describe these as stressors (Storch & Panzarella, 1996).

More than three decades ago, Reiser (1974) found the traditional paramilitary environment and rigid discipline structure were universal stress factors for line officers. Later studies revealed the same negative supervisor-subordinate relationships to be significant stressors (Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004; Storch & Panzarella, 1996; Sims et al., 2005; Slate et al., 2007; Spielberger, Westbury, Grier, & Greenfield, 1981; Zhao et al., 2002). Similar findings were reported by Gains et al. (1991) in which officers perceive the agency as being self-serving and unresponsive.

A relationship may exist between officers' beliefs of wielding influence or power within the organization and job stress. Slate et al. (2007) examined the relationship between officer perceptions of empowerment and level of stress in a department located in the southern United States. Officers reported the desire to participate in workplace decisions, but were not provided with the mechanisms to do so. This finding is consistent with prior research (Morash & Haar, 1995; Morash, Haar, & Kwak, 2006).

Stinchcomb (2004) observes that limited autonomy can lead to significant levels of job stress. When faced with an unsupportive management structure, officers experience a lack of control which ultimately results in higher levels of stress. Crank and Caldero (1991) and Davey et al. (2001) concur, and report that organizational stressors were more significant than operational stressors, due to officers' having little control over this domain.

Yet, Pasillas, Follette, and Perumean-Chaney (2006) posit much of the law enforcement stress literature is anecdotal, and only a limited amount of empirical data exists in this area of research. Zhao et al. (2002) agree that much of the research has relied on the use of surveys that required officers to rank order possible stressors. These researchers argue that this methodology is based on the erroneous assumption that all police organizations are exactly alike. They conclude that little research is available which measures officer perception of stress with their actual psychological discomfort.

To address this void, Zhao et al. (2002) conducted a study of the environment-stress relationship in two large municipal departments in the Northern United States. For their independent variables, the researchers employed the Job Diagnostic Survey along with self-generated survey items tapping workload, inadequate equipment, and general work conditions. Officer perceptions of stress were measured by the Brief Symptom Inventory (developed by Derogatis and Melisaratos, 1983).

In their study, Zhao et al. found officer perceptions of the work environment to be strong predictors of stress. Their findings corroborated prior research that revealed the bureaucratic nature of police agencies are a causal factor of officer stress, and include a

lack of officer autonomy and communication. Finally, Zhao et al. concluded that theories from the school of management were useful in studying the sources of stress among police officers.

The prevalence of job stress manifesting as burnout among police officers is well documented in the literature (Kop, Euwema, & Schaufeli, 1999; Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). To reiterate, burnout is defined as a psychological syndrome that manifests in response to chronic work-related stressors (Maslach et al. 2001). Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter (2001) define burnout as being comprised of three parts: “Emotional exhaustion”, where the person’s emotional resources are low or depleted, “depersonalization”, where the person holds cynicism towards the service recipients and attempts to distance themselves from them, and, a “reduced sense of accomplishment” where the person’s sense of their work efficacy and contribution is low or depleted (p.402). Manzoni and Eisner (2006) submit that being burnout is particularly important in the field of law enforcement as “officers who have frequent contact with ‘challenging’ citizens may get emotionally exhausted and develop cynical attitudes, leading to a dehumanized perception of these individuals” (p.621). Further, officers who are emotionally exhausted and feel ineffective are less likely to resolve citizens’ problems in a constructive manner (Kop et al., 1999).

As is the case with officer stress in general, organizational factors have been linked to officer burnout, including; a lack of administrative support (Kop et al., 1999; Martinussen, Richardsen, & Burke, 2007), conflict between job demands and job resources (Euwema, Kop, & Bakker, 2004), non-participatory decision-making processes and poor internal communication (Burke, 1997), a lack of autonomy (Burke; Manzoni &

Eisner, 2006; Martinussen, et al.); poor management (Manzoni & Eisner). Also, burnout was negatively related to job satisfaction in police officer populations (Manzoni & Eisner, Martinussen et al.).

2.9.1 Demographic Characteristics and Police Officer Stress and Burnout

The relationship between demographic variables and officer stress have been largely inconclusive and highly variable. No relationship was found between education level and stress (Storch and Panzerella, 1996). However, Dantzker (1999) found that officers with a high school diploma reported experiencing higher levels of stress than officers with Associate degrees, but lower levels of stress than those with Baccalaureate degrees. Officers holding graduate degrees reported less stress than all others. However, in a recent study, Newman and Rucker-Reed (2004) found no relationship to exist between education level and stress in a sample of Federal Marshals.

Violanti and Aaron (1993), in investigating the relationship between officer tenure and stress, reported that officers experience higher levels of stress at midcareer and the least amount of stress in the first few years and those prior to retirement. Storch and Panzarella (1996) had findings consistent with this prior study. In contrast, Zhao et al. (2002) and Newman and Rucker-Reed (2004) found no relationship between tenure and level of stress.

Regarding the relationship between stress and officer assignment, the highest levels of stress were reported by patrol officers (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Slate et al., 2007). But Davey et al. (2001) and Zhao et al. (2002) found no relationship between assignment and stress.

Spielberger et al, (1981) found there to be a relationship between agency size and officer stress, due primarily to staffing shortages. Lower levels of stress were reported by Regoli, Crank, & Culbertson (1989) to exist in smaller agencies due to a more informal and relaxed organizational environment. In a more comprehensive study, Brooks and Piquero (1998) studied agencies ranging from 50 to 1500 officers and found organizational environment to be more closely related to officer stress than agency size.

Concerning gender and officer stress or burnout, findings are mixed. Some studies found that female officers experienced more stress and burnout than their male counterparts (He, Zhao, Archibald, 2002; Morash et al, 2006). Other findings are contradictory, suggesting no relationship between gender and stress levels. (Kop et al., 1999; Newman & Rucker-Reed, 1994).

Studies comparing race and ethnicity with levels of stress also presented mixed findings. African American female officers were found to experience higher levels of stress than their counterparts, but this difference was not found among male officers (McCarty, Zhao and Garland (2007). In contrast, He, Zhao, and Ren (2005) reported that white male officers experienced higher stress levels than their African-American counterparts, but there was no difference among female officers.

2.10 Consequences of Police Officer Stress and Burnout

It is intuitively logical that officer stress compromises effective service and the police-citizen partnership. This assertion was verified by Weitzer and Tuch (2005) in their study of police-citizen encounters. Furthermore, Thayer (1989) found that

excessive stress reduced the quality of officer decisions and increased the likelihood that they would act on emotions. As such, officers may use unnecessary force or misinterpret actually non-threatening cues.

Yet, several researchers argue that many police leaders continue to view officer stress as an individually based occupational health and safety issue rather than an exigent concern that is central to the management practices of the organization (Hart & Cooper, 2001; Morash, et al. 2006; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). From an individual perspective it is evident that the psychological and physiological problems among law enforcement personnel continue to grow at an alarming rate despite the growing awareness of stress related problems and the continuing efforts to address these issues (Collins & Gibbs, 2003; Gershon et al.) It is particularly disturbing that Volanti (2004) found an increase in suicide ideation and alcohol abuse among police officers that was significantly greater than that reported by comparable demographic groups (i.e. white males 25-54 years old). Gilmartin (2002) observes that in recent years the suicide rate of police officers is more than four times greater than that of the on-duty felony death rate. In other words, a police officer is four times more likely to take his/her own life than to be killed in the line of duty due to a felonious criminal act. Gilmartin further asserts "There does not seem to be a systemic recognition by agencies or officers of the emotional toll of police work and its contributing effect to self-destructive behavior" (p. 10).

A growing body of research suggests that empowering practices within law enforcement organizations will result in lower levels of officer stress (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Morash et al., 2006; Stinchcomb, 2004; Slate et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2002). Yet, Slate et al. contend that more research is necessary to empirically prove this assertion.

2.11 Summary of Findings

While the current law enforcement environment has been useful in establishing and maintaining the professionalization of policing in the United States, it has also been problematic regarding officer welfare and police-community relations. However, research findings suggest these negative implications can be ameliorated through the application of empowering practices and structures. This suggestion is tentative at best, as the exact nature of such initiatives and structures remains ambiguous. Also, research has not been successful in identifying the reported negative organizational influences, and the situation is further confounded by the scarcity of existing empowering practices and structures in law enforcement. So far, studies of structural and psychological empowerment have been limited to nursing and private sector work populations. The current study explores the utility of applying these theoretical constructs to the law enforcement population.

CHAPTER 3. PROCEDURES AND DATA COLLECTION

3.1 Research Design

This cross-sectional exploratory study employed a quantitative design, via internet survey, to investigate the relationships between officer perception of empowerment, officer perception of burnout/emotional exhaustion and officer perception of job satisfaction. This was facilitated by testing a theoretical model that is based on the empirical models employed by Laschinger et al. (2001) and Butts et al. (2009).

In illustration, Laschinger et al. (2001) tested a model that operationalized Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory of Organizational Empowerment with structural empowerment as the predictor variable and psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995) as a mediating variable. Job strain and job satisfaction were operationalized as dependent variables.

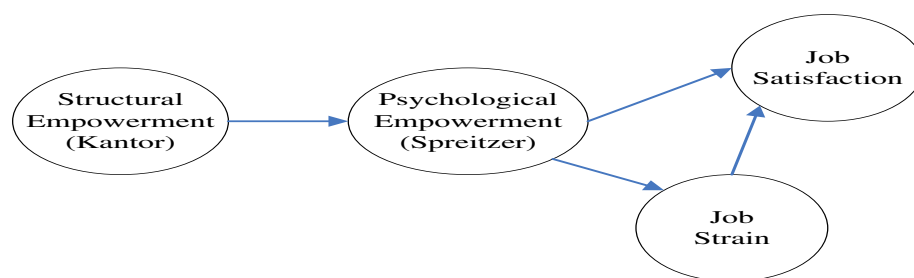


Figure 2. Laschinger et al. (2001) Structural Empowerment Model

In comparison, Butts et al. (2009) tested a model that operationalized Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) High Involvement Work Process Theory as the predictive structural empowerment construct with psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995) as a mediating variable. These researchers employed perceived organizational support as a moderating variable with the dependent variables defined as job stress, job performance, organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

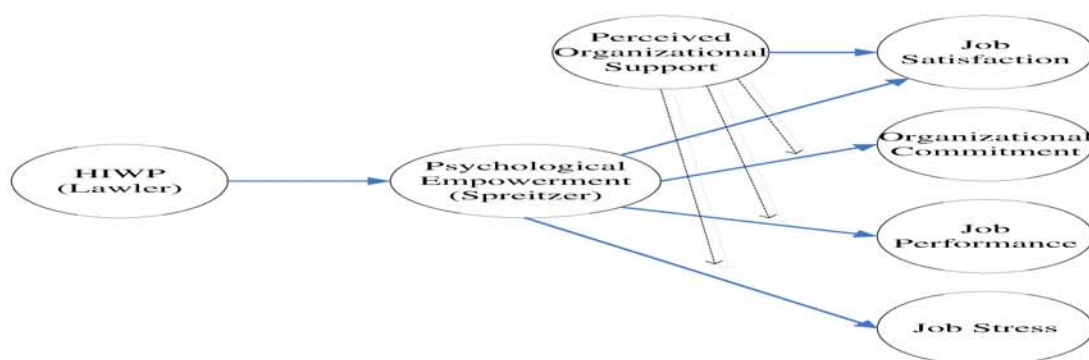


Figure 3. Butts et al. (2009) Structural Empowerment Model

These methodologies provide a sound theoretical and methodological foundation for the current research design. Yet, this study is inherently very exploratory as the predictive constructs of structural empowerment are measured with a new survey instrument that is incorporated in a model that has only been tested previously in a small pilot study. The research design also controls for the influence of demographic variables. Last, the support construct will be tested as one of the predictive sub-constructs of structural empowerment.

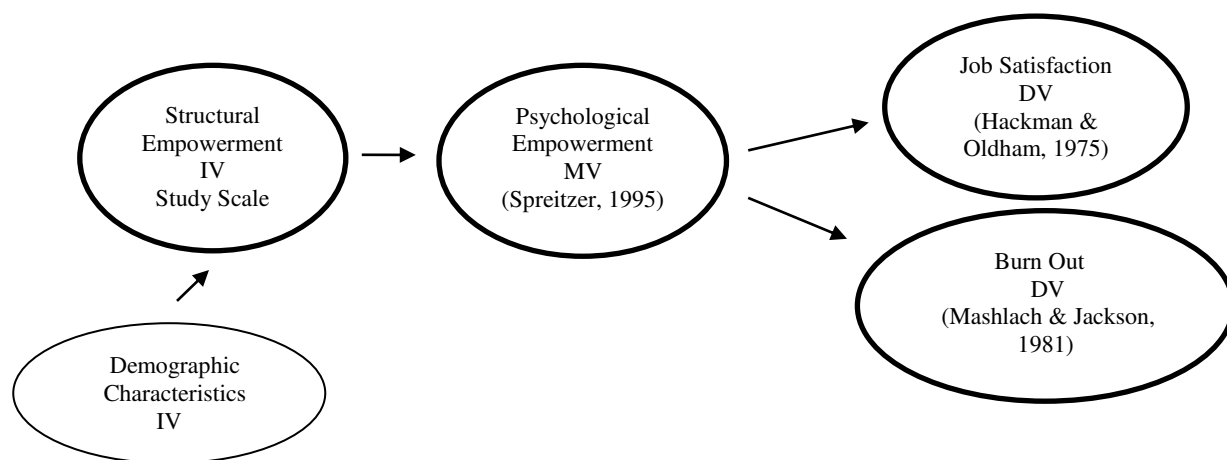


Figure 4. The Theoretical Model of Law Enforcement Structural Empowerment

3.2. Sampling Procedure

3.2.1 Sample Size Estimation

A purposive sampling strategy was employed as a comprehensive sampling frame for this population unit was not available. The use of non-probability samples is very common in the research of American law enforcement, even for quantitative studies, due to the inherent limited access to this unique population. Evidence of this can be found in the preceding literature review where the vast majority of quantitative police studies employed purposive samples. Fabrigar and Wegener (2012) observe that probability sampling is often not feasible and that “convenience samples need not be a problem so long as the biases in the sample are not strongly related to the constructs of interest” (p. 27). It was believed there is no extreme bias in this sample as the empowerment constructs have not been measured in this population group.

The population unit for this study were full-time municipal, county and state police officers who were employed in a Midwestern state in the United States. The initial sample size for this study of 400 participants was desired as the data analysis included exploratory factor analysis, and, confirmatory factor analysis via structural equation modeling. In regard to the former, Hinkin (1998) suggests a sample size of at least 150. In regard to the latter, a power analysis table created by MacCullum, Browne and Sugawara (1996) indicated that a response size of 400 was sufficient to achieve a power of .80 for a test of close model fit with degrees of freedom ranging from 25 -100, and with alpha set at .05.

The sample size estimation was guided by the procedure suggested by Watson (2001). The goal is to select a sample from a population of 8,000, which FBI data (FBI 2016) indicated was the approximate number of police officers working in the study state. A sampling error of plus or minus five percent was deemed acceptable for this sample population as it represents over 90% of the sworn officer population in the study state. The confidence level for this sample was set at 95 %, which is consistent in most social science applications (Watson). The variability of the survey items (concepts being measured) for this population was estimated at 50%. This level of variability was suggested by Watson (2001) as the preferable level when variability is difficult to measure, which was the case here.

The response rate for this study was estimated at 40% (which proved to be extremely high). This was a conservative estimate as no agreed upon rate of response has

been established for law enforcement research. This rate was derived by adding 10% to the recommendation of Dantzker and Hunter (2012) that the anticipated response rate in criminal justice surveys approximately 50%.

The estimated required sample size for this study was 953. This number was derived from a table provided by Watson (2001), which assumed a 95% confidence level and a 5% percent margin of sampling error. The estimated population was 8,000, which the table reflects required a base sample size of 381 at 50% variability. Next, this base sample size was divided by the anticipated percentage of response ($381/.40$) as was suggested by Watson (2001). This yielded a final sample size of 953, with an anticipated response rate of 400 participants (rounded up from 381).

3.2.2 Recruitment Procedure

The researcher is a member of a national fraternal police organization and was assisted in recruiting study participants by officers at both the state and local levels of the study state. The organization has a governing hierarchy of “lodges” (offices/locations) at the national, state and local levels. The local governing bodies (lodges) are located throughout the various police jurisdictions of the study state. Individual lodge memberships are designed to be comprised of municipal and county law enforcement officers who work in that jurisdiction. It was determined by consultation with organization officials that recruitment for participation in the study was best determined by the individual fraternal members. To facilitate this, a notification of the study was sent by state lodge officials to the local lodge officials asking for dissemination of, and participation in, the research. Also, the researcher contacted fraternal members and officials in person, by email and phone, and, attended various lodge meetings to increase

awareness and participation. These efforts resulted in 554 officers indicating they would participate in the study, with acknowledgement made either directly to the researcher or through their lodge officers.

In addition, the researcher searched and accessed officer work email addresses that were posted on publicly accessible sites (agency webpages), ensuring that these officers/agencies had not been previously contacted as part of the fraternal organization recruitment. This included the state law enforcement agencies which have a separate fraternal organization from the one previously described. This search yielded an additional sample of 2,324 officers. Thus, an initial possible sample size of 2,878 was generated.

The initial response rate was much lower and slower than anticipated. The first 700 invitations, which functioned as a pilot study (please see section 3.5), resulted in approximately 80 responses (11% response rate). Also, minority officers and responses from officers in medium sized agencies (100-400 officers) were under-represented. In remedy, the researcher contacted lodges that were in this size range and/or known to be comprised of officers from minority populations. The researcher ensured these lodges had not previously acknowledged participation or notification. This effort increased the potential sample size by 1,275 to a total of 4,153. The subsequent responses indicated it probable that some of these officers participated. However, the researcher did not receive direct confirmation of specific participation from these lodges.

In summary, it is reasonable to believe that 4,153 officers received notification of the study. It is certain that 2, 878 officers were sent an invitation to participate in the survey.

3.3 Measures

3.3.1 Structural Empowerment Measure

The predictor variable used in this study was officer perception of structural empowerment which was operationally defined and measured by an untested survey instrument designed by the author (please see Appendix C). Creating a new instrument was required as the measures employed by Vandenberg et al., (1999), Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2001) were created for private sector work populations. Therefore, phrasing of these scales were highly unlikely to tap the unique job perceptions of police officers. Further, Butts et al. and Vandenberg et al. employed Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) theory of structural empowerment, whereas Laschinger et al. (2001) tested Kanter's (1977, 1993) theoretical constructs. A critical distinction between these theories is that each does not contain important sub-constructs that are included in the other. For example, Lawler's theory does not contain the sub-construct of organizational support, which Butts et al. proved to have a moderating influence on employee empowerment. Laschinger et al. (2001) also proved support to be a significant independent sub-construct of structural empowerment, although it carried a different definition than that tested by Butts et al. (2009). In addition, Lawler's theory does not include the sub-constructs of informal power and resources, which Laschinger et al. (2001) demonstrated to be significant factors of empowerment. In comparison, the reward sub-construct is not present in Kanter's theory, which Vandenberg et al. and Butts et al. have shown to be significant sub-constructs of empowerment. Please recall that Kanter's sub-construct of opportunity and Lawler's sub-construct of knowledge as similarly defined as are their respective sub-constructs of information.

Table 1.
Theoretical Constructs of Structural Empowerment

Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) High Involvement Work Process Theory:	Kanter's (1977, 1993) Organizational Empowerment Theory:	Study Constructs of Structural Empowerment:
- Power	- Formal & Informal Power	- Formal Power & Informal Power
- Information	- Information	- Information
- Reward	- Support	- Task Resources
- Knowledge	- Resources	- Reward
	- Opportunity	- Job Knowledge
		- Department Support

Thus, it was determined necessary to create, apply and test an empowerment measure that was specific to the unique work population and context of the present study. This resulted in designing a survey measure that functions as a summated scale, containing 49 items distributed among the 7 sub-constructs (7 items per construct), which are measured on a five point Likert Scale, with a range of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). It was believed that this number of items was sufficient enough to tap the respective latent variables, with each requiring a minimum of three manifest indicators (variables) as is required for exploratory factor analysis (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012) and structural modeling (Kline, 2011). Also, every effort was taken to gather the necessary data, but to also keep the survey length as short as possible.

The operational definitions and survey items of formal power, information, reward and job knowledge were based on the work of Lawler (1986, 1992, 1996),

Vandenberg et al. (1999) and Butts et al. (2009). The operational definitions and survey items of department support were based on the work of Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Butts et al. (2009). The researcher is not aware of any definition or measure of organizational support specifically for law enforcement to exist. As such, an alternative was selected. Eisenberger's et al. (1986) definition of support was deemed to be better suited to the domain of law enforcement than that devised by Kantor (1977, 1993), as it inherently implies that the police agency is concerned with the officer's safety or physical well-being, which is strongly emphasized in the policing profession. The operational definitions and survey items of informal power and job resources were based on the work of Kantor (1977, 1993) and Laschinger et. al. (2001).

The study empowerment sub-construct definitions were:

Formal Power: Officers perceiving that they work in an empowering environment with sufficient decision-making authority and influence. Also including involvement in policy and procedure development.

Informal Power: Officer perception of influence and professional self-esteem developed through positive relations with superiors, peers and subordinates. Also, perceiving that they are a good fit in the department.

Information: Officers perceiving knowledge of organizational decisions, policies and objectives. Also, perception of sufficient access to information required to perform their work function.

Job Knowledge: Officer perceiving job efficacy through the acquisition of adequate work skill training and education through both formal and informal mechanisms. Also, perceiving they have adequate input into their training regimen.

Task Resources: Officers perceiving access to the tangible items they require to do their job. Including having adequate equipment, quality equipment, adequate staffing, help when required, and sufficient time to perform their work requirements.

Reward: Officers perceiving adequate non-monetary incentives in order to produce attitudes and behaviors that are beneficial to the organization. Such incentives include general recognition, credit for ideas, and, accurate performance evaluations and feedback from superiors.

Department Support: An officer's perception that they are valued within the Department and that the Department cares about their well-being. Including, perceiving the Department to be tolerant of honest mistakes, concerned for the officer's job satisfaction and job stress, standing with them in a controversial situation, and generally being adequately supported in their work role.

3.3.2 Psychological Empowerment Measure

The psychological empowerment construct was operationalized as a mediating variable, and measured with Spreitzer's (1995) 12 item scale (please see Appendix D).

The measure is a summated scale employing a 5-point Likert Scales, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), that taps the four sub-constructs of Meaning, Competence, Self-Determination, and Impact. Each sub-construct was measured with three items.

The reliability and validity of Spreitzer's (1995) instrument has been consistently demonstrated and effectively used in multiple studies. (Spreitzer & Quinn, 2001). These include the studies of Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2009). Also, Spreitzer's (1995) measure has proven to be valid in a variety of work environments (Spreitzer & Quinn), including policing (Winegar, 2003).

3.3.3 Job Satisfaction Measure

Officer job satisfaction was measured with four items from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) global job satisfaction measure, which is a summated sub-scale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Please see Appendix E). Hackman and Oldham described this sub-scale as an "An overall measure of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the job" (1975, p. 162). This sub-scale does not contain any items that pertain to satisfaction with extrinsic rewards, or, to the antecedent variables of job satisfaction. The items were measured on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale. (Please see Appendix E).

The JDS was selected based on the recommendation of Russell et al. (2004), who submits that the use of either global or facet surveys are the two most common means of measuring job satisfaction. The former job measures a general affective assessment about one's job, and is recommended for use in studies where the interest is the relationship between organizational factors and the participant's general attitudes about the job, as was the objective here (Russell et al.). The latter views job satisfaction as a multidimensional construct and is frequently used to identify specific areas of employee job satisfaction (Russell et al.).

In addition, the JDS scales have been successfully used in police job satisfaction studies (Greene, 1989; Miller, Mire, & Kim, 2009; Zhao et al., 1999). Also, Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2001) employed versions of Hackman and Oldham's (1975) global job satisfaction sub-scale in their studies, which were comprised of 5 items and 4 items, respectively.

3.3.4 Burnout Measure

Officer burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) (May not be reproduced, use was purchased). This summated scale is comprised of 22 items divided among three sub-scales that measure the sub-constructs of burnout: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Reduced Sense of Accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The emotional exhaustion scale, which was used to measure burnout in this study, has 9 items, i.e. “I feel emotionally drained by my work” (Maslach & Jackson, p. 102). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 (never) to 7 (every day). The level of burnout is related to a sum of high scores on scale (Maslach & Jackson).

The scale was designed specifically for measuring burnout in first response and emergency services professions (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). It is the most used measure of burnout in general, and its reliability and validity have been repeatedly demonstrated (Cooper, Drewe, & O’Driscoll, 2001). Also, the MBI-HSS (Maslach & Jackson) is the most used measure of burnout in police populations (Kop et al., 1999).

3.3.5 Demographic Measures

The traits of officer gender, ethnicity, education level, tenure, assignment and agency size were employed as demographic variables and controlled for in the statistical model (please see Appendix F). Please recall that study findings regarding the relationship between officer demographic traits, perception of job satisfaction and perception of job stress were primarily inconclusive (Dantzker, 1992; Zhao et al., 1999).

3.4 Pre-Test Procedure

A pre-test procedure was employed using the post- interview method. A pre-test sample size of 20-40 was desirable (Dr. M. Subramaniam, personal communication, October 10, 2013), as such, the researcher recruited 20 participants to form the pre-test group. A quota sampling (Blair, Czaia, & Blair, 2013) technique was used to recruit the participants. The researcher contacted active police officers (professional acquaintances) serving in the region where he resides. These participants were not included in the sample population of the main study. The researcher emailed the survey link to the participants, and asked them to contact him when they had completed the on-line survey.

The researcher was able to conduct 8 declared and 6 undeclared interviews from the post-test participants. Both the declared and undeclared interviews were initiated after the researcher was in receipt of the completed survey. Four of the declared interviews and 3 of the undeclared interviews were conducted in person. The remaining seven interviews were conducted by phone. The post-interview questions, as suggested by Blair et al. (2013), were:

1. About how long did it take you to complete the survey?
2. Where there any questions you were not sure how to answer? If yes, which ones?
3. Were there any questions that made you uncomfortable in answering? If yes, which ones?
4. Are there any questions that you feel other officers would find difficult to answer? if yes, which ones?
5. Please offer any advice as to how I may improve this survey.

These interviews confirmed that it required about ten minutes to take the survey as was intended by the researcher. Four of the participants indicated that they found the use of “neither agree nor disagree” in the response scale as cumbersome. This phrasing was subsequently changed to “neutral” per their suggestion. Also, a review of the

applicable literature indicated nothing to be overtly incorrect with the use of “neutral” as a middle value on a Likert scale. In addition, Spreitzer’s (1995) scale uses “neutral” as a mid-scale value.

Also, in conjunction with Question 5, the participants were apprised of the intent of the study and asked for their assessment of the effectiveness of the empowerment construct items. The general consensus was that the items were likely sufficiently written to tap the intended perception. Three of these participants have graduate level educations and each commented to the effect that the only way to ensure the reliability and validity of the items was to perform the study.

3.5 Pilot Study

The first 700 responses were treated as a pilot study in keeping with best practice recommendations (Blair et al. 2013). As was previously mentioned, the initial response rate was lower and slower than anticipated, with indication that minority officers and officers from medium sized agencies were under-represented. As such, a judgement sample was engaged, as was previously discussed, to increase both the overall response rate and that of the described under-represented populations.

3.6 Full Data Collection and Response Rate

The survey data was collected by an on-line survey placed on the Purdue Qualtrics platform. This mode was selected to maximize the participant’s sense of anonymity and privacy in completing the survey, and, to minimize the costs of the study. In fact, the “anonymous link” mode in the Qualtrics platform was employed. The survey link (invitation) was sent to the fraternal organization participants either directly by the researcher through the Qualtrics sample function, or, through their lodge officers as

determined by participant preference. The survey link (invitation) was sent directly by the researcher, through the Qualtrics sample function, to the officers whose public email addresses were ascertained.

The survey invitations were set in increments of approximately 350 – 450, approximately one week apart, in order to facilitate manageability, reduce being blocked as spam, and to not unduly burden any one agency's email account. One reminder invitation was sent approximately three weeks after the initial contact.

A total of 551 surveys were returned. However, incident to the initial data conditioning procedure (please see Chapter 4), a final total of 487 surveys were deemed usable for the subsequent analyses. This final sample size ($n = 487$) represents 11.7% of the total sample ($N = 4,153$) and approximately 6% of the population estimation ($N = 8,000$ approximately).

CHAPTER 4. PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

4.1 Methodology of the Analysis

All the statistical analyses were conducted in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) v. 22 with the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) v. 23 structural modeling function. The study data sets, both raw and pooled via multiple imputation, were created from an initial data download from the Qualtrics platform into SPSS. The subsequent frequency analysis, normality and outlier tests, missing data analysis, multiple imputation procedure, exploratory factor analysis, independent sample t tests and Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) analyses were performed in SPSS. The subsequent confirmatory factor analysis, tests of hypotheses and tests of the effect of the demographic variables were conducted in the graphic interface of the AMOS function.

4.2 Initial Data Conditioning

Please recall that 551 surveys were received. However, the initial assessment of missing data indicated that 64 of these responses were missing at least 25% of the data. Frequently, entire blocks of response areas were missing, particularly in the demographic portion of the survey. This level of missing data was deemed to be unacceptable, although the literature had not established a cut-off for the percentage of missing data that is acceptable for valid statistical inference (Dong & Peng, 2013). For example, Schafer (1999) noted that 5% of the data missing is of no consequence, whereas

Bennett (2001) reported that a bias is produced when more than 10% of the data is missing. Based on these estimates it was determined that an acceptable rate of missing data for the intended statistical analyses was 5%. A final usable sample size of 487 ($n = 487$) was created. An analysis of missing data was conducted via the SPSS Analyze Patterns function revealing that only 5.01% of the data was missing. The negatively worded items were then recoded.

It is important to note that additional procedures were conducted to further mitigate the effects of missing data. These procedures are described in the next sections.

4.3 Assessment of Normality and Outliers

The initial assessment of normality and outliers in the data was conducted through the examination of the variables' 5% trimmed means, histograms, normal Q-Q plot, detrended normal Q-Q plots and boxplots as recommended by Pallant (2010). The analysis was conducted with the missing data cases excluded listwise which is the default method in SPSS. An examination of the 5% trimmed means showed no large difference between any two mean values, indicative of the absence of outlying values. The shapes of the histograms indicated that the scores were reasonably normally distributed and free of outliers, which was further confirmed through an examination of the normal probability plot as the lines in each plot were reasonably straight. The detrended Q-Q plots also indicated that the scores were reasonably normal with no noticeable clustering of points with the majority points collecting around the zero line. In SPSS boxplots scores are identified as outliers if they are located more than 1.5 box-lengths from

the edge of the box, and appear as circles with an identification number attached (Pallant). All outlying values in the box plots were individually checked and no impossible values were found.

4.4 Demographic Data

The demographic variables concerning officer gender, ethnicity, supervisory status, assignment, education and years of service, were analyzed through frequency distributions. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

Frequency Distribution of Officer Demographic Data

Variable	Missing	Frequency	Percent
Gender	1		.2
Male		452	92.8
Female		34	7.0
Ethnicity	15		3.1
Caucasian		452	92.8
African American		9	1.8
Latino		5	1.0
Asian		5	1.0
Native American		1	.2
Supervisor	3		.6
Yes		246	50.8
No		238	49.2
Assignment	2		.4
Patrol		280	57.5
Investigations		136	27.9
Support		69	14.2
Education	1		.2
High School		31	6.4
Some College		108	22.2
Associate's Degree		77	15.8
Bachelor's Degree		230	47.2
Graduate Degree		40	8.2

Table 2. (continued)
Frequency Distribution of Officer Demographic Data

Variable	Missing	Frequency	Percent
Years of Service	1		.2
1-5		45	9.2
6-10		81	16.6
11-15		70	14.4
16-20		107	22.0
20 or More		183	37.7

The characteristics of this sample reflected a reasonable distribution regarding education, length of service, assignment and supervisory capacity. It was notable that the majority of the respondents are more senior officers who may be more comfortable participating in surveys. The majority of the respondents hold Bachelor degrees, which may be indicative of a greater willingness to participate in academic research. From an analytic perspective it is advantageous to have a nearly equal division of supervisory and non-supervisory officers. It should be noted that responses were gathered regarding actual rank titles, however, these will not be included in the analyses to avoid duplicity and confusion. A title of rank does not always include supervisory responsibilities.

It was not surprising that the majority of the respondents are white males, as national data reflect that the majority of the aggregate law enforcement population is white (78.2%) and male (87.8%). Unfortunately, female and minority officers are under-represented in the sample. The number of responding female officers represents 7% of the sample, which is below the reported national level of 12% (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2016). National data also reported that 27% of the cumulative law

enforcement population are from a racial or ethnic minority (Bureau of Justice Statistics). This included 12.2% African American, 11.6 % Hispanic, 3.2% Asian (including Hawaiian or Pacific Islander), .06% Native American (including Native Alaskan) and the remaining .05% being a combination of two or more races. Unfortunately, this sample included only 20 responses from minority officers, which constitutes only 4% of the total.

State statistics are not included to better preserve the anonymity of the respondents, however, there is little doubt that, based on national data, female and officers from minority populations are under-represented in this sample.

The demographic statistics regarding agency type and size were also measured by frequency distribution. The results are present in Table 3.

Table 3.
Frequency Distribution of Agency Data

Agency Type	Missing	Frequency	Percent
	5		1.0
Municipal		248	50.9
County		60	12.3
University		16	3.3
State		158	32.4
Agency Size	4		.8
10 or Less		8	1.7
11-20		44	9.0
21-30		27	5.5
31-40		52	10.8
41-50		58	11.9
51-99		45	9.2
100-200		60	12.3
201-499		21	4.3
500 or More		168	34.5

The majority of the respondents work in municipal agencies which was consistent with national data, where the majority of police officers are employed by municipalities.

The representation of county officers is somewhat low as on a national level more officers work in county agencies than in state agencies. Also, the representation of officers employed by universities is low. It is important to recount that agency data is presented for informational purposes only. No comparisons between agency types will be made as the researcher is not comfortable doing so without also offering in-depth explanatory (ideally qualitative) data which is beyond the scope of this study.

There is a reasonably equitable distribution regarding agency size. It should be noted that agencies with ten or less officers are under-represented as national data reflected that 48% of all local police agencies have less than 10 officers (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2016). Also, as was previously mentioned, it would be desirable to have a larger representation in the medium-sized agencies (100-400).

4.5 Multiple Random Imputation

A potential problem with missing data emerged during the check for normality and outliers in that more than 5% of the data was missing from some individual item responses. Please recall that these initial checks were performed using the default method of listwise deletion. In addition, an initial exploratory factor analysis procedure, intended to evaluate the factorability of the data as suggested by Fabrigar and Wegener (2012), revealed that the listwise method deleted 21% of the cases, with only 386 cases included in the analysis. This was deemed to be an unacceptable loss of data.

Allison (2012) admonishes that the use of listwise deletion, while a viable means of mitigating missing data concerns, is not the most optimal alternative if the loss of data is too great as was the case here.

In remedy, a dataset was produced using the multiple random imputation procedure in SPSS, following the procedure recommended in the SPSS v.22 Missing Data Manual (IBM, 2013). Several authorities reported that multiple random imputation is among the most effective and unbiased methods of managing missing data by allowing all of the cases to be retained. (Allison, 2001; Dong & Ping, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Allison defines imputation as “The basic idea is to substitute some reasonable guess (imputation) for each missing variable and then proceed to do the analysis as if there were no missing data (2001, p. 11). Simply stated, multiple random imputation uses a series of equations to calculate and summate the most likely mean value of the missing data (Dong & Ping). This value can then be used in subsequent multivariate analysis, including structural modeling (Allison). The multiple imputation procedure in SPSS v.22 uses 5 iterations to arrive at mean or “pooled” value for each missing score (IBM, 2013). The pooled values were used in the subsequent analyses in this study.

The imputed values data set was then checked for impossible values. One such value of “7” was recorded for item 16, “Sufficient help is available to me when I need it”, which was one of the informal empowerment items placed on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale. It is believed that the impossible value resulted from a random error in the imputation process. The score was changed to “3” as this was the imputed mean value for this item.

4.6 Descriptive Statistics for Psychological Empowerment, Job Satisfaction and Burnout

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the mediating variable of psychological empowerment, and, the dependent variables of job satisfaction and burnout. Please recall that these scales have been repeatedly validated in numerous studies. These statistics

included checking the internal consistency of the scales using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. No firm interpretation of what is an acceptable alpha value has been established (Blunch, 2008; Hinkin, 1998). However, George and Mallory (2003) state “a rule of thumb that applies in most situations is: $\alpha > .9$ – excellent, $\alpha > .8$ – good, $\alpha > .7$ – acceptable, $\alpha > .6$ – questionable, $\alpha > .5$ – poor, $\alpha < .5$ – unacceptable” (p. 369).

The alpha coefficient for the aggregate psychological empowerment scale was .81, and, .90 respectively for the subscales of meaning and impact. The coefficient for self-determination was acceptable at .77. The coefficient for competency was questionable at .60, but was retained in some of the subsequent analysis due to the exploratory nature of this study. The job satisfaction scale coefficient was acceptable at .72. The coefficient score for the emotional exhaustion scale was excellent at .90.

Please recall that these measures are summated scales whose aggregate and subscales means are conducive to being used in multivariate analysis, including structural modeling (Butts et al. 2009; Carless, 2004; Laschinger et al. 2001; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005). The mean of the psychological empowerment sub-scales, job satisfaction and burnout (emotional exhaustion) scales were computed and used in subsequent analyses.

Table 4.
Descriptive Statistics for Psychological Empowerment, Job Satisfaction and Burnout

Variable	Mean	Standard Error	Std. Deviation
Competency	4.09	.022	.493
Meaning	4.25	.029	.657
Self Determination	3.90	.029	.651
Impact	2.56	.044	.976
Job Satisfaction	3.92	.029	.655
Emotional Exhaustion	2.99	.054	1.20
N = 487			

The means of these variables indicate that this sample group perceived their job competency, meaning of their work and ability to determine their own work activities to be above the average of the scale. The above average score for self-determination is interesting as the literature reflects that this is one of the salient causes of officer stress and dissatisfaction is a lack of autonomy. The impact score reflects that, in aggregate, this group perceived a below average sense of influence or voice in their agencies which was consistent with the study findings in this area. Also, it is very encouraging that this group of law enforcement officers were satisfied with their jobs and reported a low level of emotional exhaustion as based on the scale averages.

4.7 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

4.7.1 Methodology of the Analysis

This analysis was guided by the admonishment of several authorities that two conditions must be achieved in order to produce a credible solution. First, the greatest amount of variance in the smallest number of factors must be produced, and, the solution must conceptually viable (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012; Norusis, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The first condition is met by deriving a *simple structure* from the factor structure which, according to Fabrigar and Wegener (2012), is achieved when:

1. Each factor is distinguished by a large set of variable loadings with the remaining variables having small loadings.
2. Variables defining a factor do not overlap to a large degree with other variables.
3. Each variable is influenced by only a subset of factors and not on all the factors.

Fabrigar and Wegener define the second condition of conceptual viability as “...the researcher must select the solution that is theoretically plausible, readily interpretable and likely to replicate across studies” (2012, p. 71). In concurrence, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) caution that variables may correlate with each other to produce a factor, yet have little or no meaning for the factor. These authors also admonish that a factor should be identified by at least two meaningful items.

Some authorities recommend that the analysis be an iterative process where different extraction and rotation methods are used to arrive at an optimal solution (Norusis, 2009; Tachacknick & Fidell, 2007). The subsequent findings here were arrived at through such an iteration. However, the reported solution resulted through the factor extraction technique of maximum likelihood. Maximum likelihood was selected as this type of analysis was used in the AMOS structural modeling, including confirmatory factor analysis, creating consistency between factor analytics. Varimax and promax rotations were used as part of the described iterative analyses. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) submit that varimax is an orthogonal rotation technique to be used when the data are not correlated, and is the most popular rotation method used due to the interpretative ease of the results. Promax is an oblique rotation technique that is recommended when the variables are known to be correlated, as is the case here (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012). The results of both rotations were very similar. However, the variamax rotation indicated the retention of more variables and a greater degree of cross-loadings, defined as an item loading of .32 on two or more factors (Costello & Osborne, 2005), than did the promax technique. The varimax results produced the best fitting model in the subsequent confirmatory factor analysis procedure. Last, all analyses were performed with a loading

cutoff of .32 in order to suppress low loading variables as is recommended by several authorities (Costello and Osborne, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

4.7.2 Initial Solution

Initially, an un-rotated maximum likelihood analysis and a maximum likelihood analysis with varimax rotation analysis was conducted to determine the innate factor loadings of the variables and to check for common method bias. The check for method bias was conducted as the data are self-reported and collected through the same survey at the same period of time, which is conducive to this type of bias (Podsakoff, McKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Both analyses revealed eight factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. In the rotated analyses the eight factors together accounted for 52.8 % of the variance, and the first factor did not account for the majority of the total variance (21.2%). These results indicate that common method variance was not of great concern here (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Next, an array of scores were inspected to ensure that the data were suitable for EFA. The correlation matrix reflected that there were no coefficient values greater than .90, indicating the absence of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2010). Also, the determinant score of 3.709E-13, accompanying the correlation matrix, being above .00001, also indicated an absence of multicollinearity (Yong & Pearce, 2013).

The result for the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was $p = .000$, and thus below .05, indicating that patterned relationships existed in the sample data (Yong & Pierce, 2013). Also, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) of Sampling Adequacy was above .50 at .948, confirming that the sample was of sufficient size (Yong & Pearce).

Last, all the diagonal elements in the Anti-Correlation Matrix had values above .50 with the lowest value being .739, providing additional confirmation that the sample size was sufficient (Yong & Pierce).

The eight factor solution did not fit the data well as a large number of items loaded on the first factor. Also, the scree plot indicated that the data loaded on three factors.

4.7.3 Seven Factor Solution

A seven factor solution was extracted from the data as this was the theorized a priori structure of structural empowerment. It was quickly and readily apparent that a seven factor solution did not fit the data. The rotated sums of squared loadings score in the variance table indicated that the seven factors explained 52.7 % of the variance, however, the majority of variance was explained by the first three factors at 37.8%. Factor four accounted for an additional 5% variance, and, factors six and seven explained a respective additional variance of 4%. Also, the scree plot, depicted on the next page, clearly indicated that a three factor solution was appropriate.

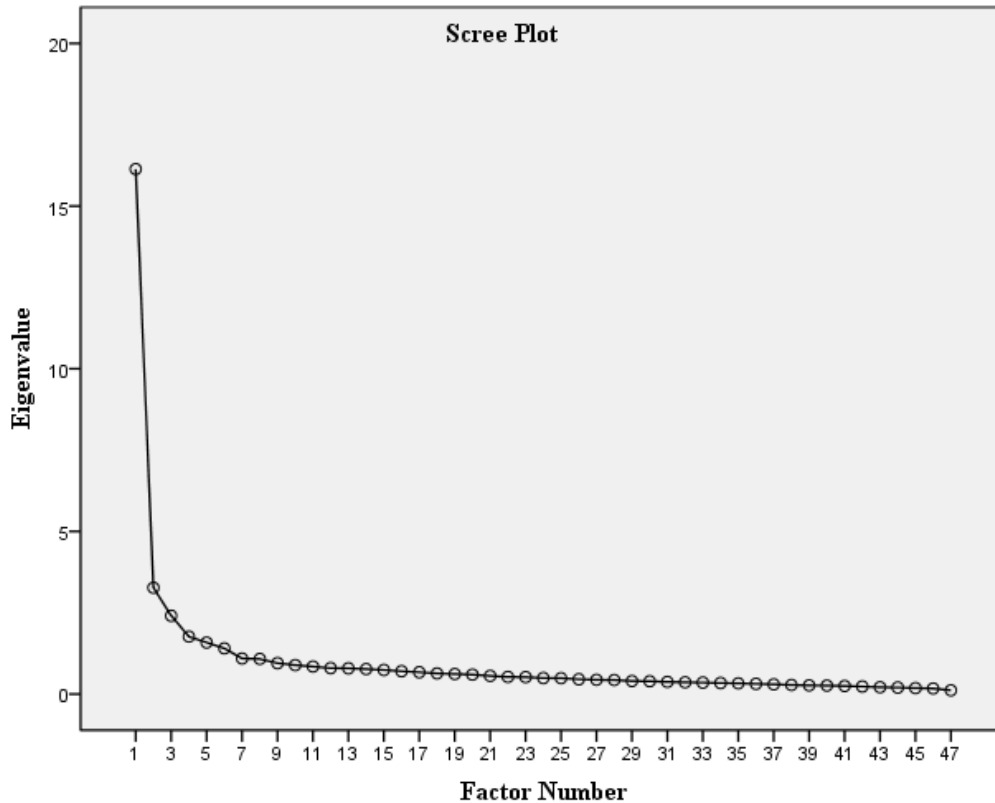


Figure 5. Scree Plot of Seven Factor Solution

Two items were eliminated as they loaded below .32. These were “I often collaborate with professionals outside of my work role” (informal power) and “The Department’s sworn staffing level is adequate” (task resources). As such, a total of 47 items were retained in the subsequent analysis.

The rotated factor table indicated that 25 of the remaining 47 variables loaded solely on Factor 1. These included all seven of the department support, information and reward items, two formal power items, and one item from both informal power and task resources. In addition, seven variables had strong cross loadings on Factor 1. These included one item from job knowledge, and two items each from formal power, informal power and task resources.

A summary of the loadings on the other factors were:

Factor 2: All seven of the job knowledge items.

Factor 3: Three items from formal power.

Factor 4: Four items from informal power and one item from formal power.

Factor 5: Three items from task resources.

Factor 6: Only contained the two task resources items regarding sufficient time.

Factor 7: No Loadings

In addition, there were only two other incidents of cross loading, where one task resources item loaded on Factors 2 and 3 (as well as Factor 1), and one job knowledge item loaded on both Factors 2 and 3.

Please recall that Hypothesis 1 was:

H₁: Structural empowerment is a multidimensional construct composed of seven factors: Formal Power, Informal Power, Department Support, Reward, Task Resources, Information, and Job Knowledge.

Norusis (2009) posits that EFA can be used to test the hypothesis “about the number of underlying factors” of a data sample (p. 390). Accordingly, Hypothesis 1 is rejected, as based on the preceding analysis, the structural empowerment data more is likely to fit a five, three or even one factor simple structure.

Subsequently six, five and four factor solutions were explored to enhance both rigor and the researcher’s understanding of the data. As expected, these results consistently indicated that a 3 factor solution was optimal in regard to total amount of variance and scree plot, whereas a single factor solution was indicated regarding loading frequency, percentage of variance explained, and the production of a simple structure. In each analysis over half of the items consistently loaded solely on Factor 1.

These included all of the department support, reward and information items. The job knowledge items tended to load on a separate factor with few cross loadings. However, the task resource items consistently loaded on two separate factors regarding time (two items only) and equipment. The formal power items and the informal power items tended to load on separate factors, but with considerable cross loadings on Factor 1.

Three additional items were eliminated in the above analyses due to loadings below .32. These items were all from the informal power subscale, and included: “I am highly respected by my peers, “I am a professional role model” and “My peer officers often consult with me regarding work issues”. So, 44 items remained for testing in the subsequent analyses. These included all of the department support, reward, information, formal power and job knowledge items (7 items each; 35 total). The six remaining task resources items, and the three remaining informal power items.

4.7.4 Three Factor Solution

A three factor solution was extracted accounting for 45.5% of the variance in the data. The scree plot again confirmed that a three factor solution was appropriate. However, 23 items loaded directly on Factor 1, with another seven items cross loading there as well.

The loadings of this solution in summary were:

Factor 1: All (seven each) of the department support, reward and information items. One formal power item, with three cross loadings. Two informal power item loadings, with one cross loading. Two cross loadings from job knowledge and one cross loading from task resources.

Factor 2: All seven job knowledge items, with one cross loading on Factor 1, and one cross loading on Factor 1. The six remaining task resources items with cross loading on Factor 1 and one cross loading on Factor 3. One formal power item, with one cross loading Factor 1.

Factor 3: Five formal power items, with two cross loading on Factor 1. One informal power item that also cross loaded on Factor 1.

While this result did not present a clear simple structure, it did suggest four viable conceptual possibilities. First, it is theoretically plausible that for this sample, and for the general law enforcement population, structural empowerment is a three factor construct in which the seven a priori factors are incorporated, which would be confirmed via confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Conceptually, the first and largest factor consists of empowering *interpersonal structures* regarding concern for well-being, non-monetary reward, information, and informal power. The second factor is comprised of empowering *task structures* involving job knowledge and resources. The third factor captures *formal power* indicative of involvement in department decision-making.

However, a second plausible possibility exists where structural empowerment is a two factor structure, should the heavily cross loaded variables of *formal power* prove to actually load on Factor 1 in a CFA analysis. The two factor structure would be defined as *interpersonal structures*, including *formal power*, with the second factor being *task structures* consisting of job knowledge and resources.

Also, a third conceptual possibility is that structural empowerment is a unidimensional construct comprised of specific facets of the described sub-constructs.

The researcher was not aware of any literature that specifically supported any of these factor structures for structural empowerment. However, it should be recounted that Butts et al. (2009) demonstrated structural empowerment to be a four factor structure in a sample drawn from a population of retail employees, whereas Laschinger et al. (2001) demonstrated a five factor structure in a sample drawn from a population of nurses.

Therefore, it is plausible that the number of structural empowerment sub-constructs varies among work populations, and, for law enforcement officers it is either a one, two or three factor structure.

Yet, a fourth plausible possibility, which most exemplifies a simple structure and is reasonably buttressed by the extant literature, is that this data loads on a unidimensional factor similar to Eisenberger's et al. (1986) organizational support construct. Specifically, this measure may have actually tapped areas of *department support* in which aspects of the empowerment structures are incorporated and consolidated in a single but multi-faceted factor. It is important to recount that the researcher is not aware of a published organizational support scale, or definition of support, specifically for law enforcement.

It does not appear that any of these possibilities can be readily and fully vetted through the continued use of traditional exploratory factor analysis. Fabrigar and Wegener (2012) contend that the maximum likelihood function in structural equation modeling, which is usually considered as being used exclusive to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was originally developed to be used as an exploratory tool. The authors encourage the use of CFA in exploratory factor procedures.

4.8 AMOS Structural Modeling and Confirmatory Factor Analysis Procedure

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) as well as the subsequent hypothesis testing was conducted using Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation in the AMOS v.23 structural modeling software. Maximum Likelihood gives the probability of the fit of the study data

based on the resulting parameters of the modeled data (Blunch, 2008). Byrne (2010) agreed that maximum likelihood defines the extent to which the sample data fits with the hypothesized data.

However, there is conflict in the literature concerning the most suitable indices to use in assessing the comprehensive fit of SEM models (Blunch, 2008; Byrne, 2010; Laschinger et al. 2001). The three fit indices employed in this research were selected as these were used in similar research by Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2001). These fit indices are also recommended by Kline (2011), and include each model's chi-square (χ^2) value along with the calculated degrees of freedom and the resulting probability value. Also, the model's Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA), with a 90% confidence were also examined and reported.

The comprehensive chi-square (χ^2) statistic is the Likelihood Ratio Test that measures the general null hypothesis that the difference between the residuals of the true and the hypothesized model is zero (Byrne, 2010). The probability attached to χ^2 defines the probability of getting the χ^2 value that is greater than the χ^2 value when the null hypotheses is true (Byrne). Thus, higher probability values associated with χ^2 suggest a closer fit between the hypothesized model and a model that fits perfectly (Blunch, 2008; Byrne). Yet, researchers (Blunch, 2008; Byrne 2010; Laschinger et al., 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007)) warned that the χ^2 statistic is unreliable due to its sensitivity to sample size and is questionable for use due to theoretical models being incapable of fitting real world data exactly. So, the χ^2 statistic is employed to assess overall relative fit, and the use of other fit indices is recommended (Blunch; Byrne; Laschinger et al.). Two other fit indices were employed in this research based on this recommendation.

These included the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which is a relative fit index whose estimate accounts for sample size (Byrne, 2010). Values for the CFI are determined by comparing the hypothesized model with the null model, with a range from 0 to 1.0, where a value around .95 indicates a well-fitted model (Byrne).

The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was the third fit index employed in this research. This index is recognized as one of the most informative fit indicators in structural modeling (Byrne, 2010). It accounts for the error of approximation in the population, and asks the question “How well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available?” (Byrne, p. 80).

Fabrigar and Wegener (2012) recommend that RMSEA values of .05 or less indicate a close fit, values of .051 to .080 indicate an acceptable fit, values of .081 to .10 indicate a marginal fit and values greater than .10 indicate a poor fit. The authors also recommend that this index be used in determining the fit when exploring factor structures.

Routinely using RMSEA is highly recommended by MacCullum and Austin (2000) as it is sensitive to model misspecification, uses the commonly known probability value of a .05 significance level and produces quality model results. Further, the use of the RMSEA is desirable as it provides confidence intervals around the reported probability values. Specifically, AMOS reports a 90% confidence interval around the RMSEA statistics, with a close interval indicating a high degree of precision and a close model fit with the population (Byrne).

Along with the described indices, the AMOS output produces tests of statistical significance of a model's parameter estimates, which are regression coefficients (Blunch, 2008). Basically, these estimates represent hypothesized pathways between variables in the model (Blunch, 2008; Byrne, 2010). The AMOS nomenclature refers to the regression coefficients as regression weights, and gives unstandardized and standardized values (Blunch). The test statistic employed here is the critical ratio (C.R.), that results from dividing the parameter estimate by its standard error (Byrne). The C. R. functions as a z-statistic, and determines if the estimate is statistically different from zero, with statistical significance defined by a probability level of .05 (Byrne). When performing CFA in AMOS the regression coefficients represent factor loadings with a significance level of .05 or less being indicative of close fit.

AMOS also gives model Modification Indices (MI) that present a statistic for every model parameter (Byrne, 2010). This statistic estimates the positive or negative change, for each parameter in the model and produces important information that can be used to evaluate fit through modifying the parameters (Byrne). The MI values were often assessed in the analyses conducted here to evaluate model fit. Alterations in this study were theoretically rather than empirically based as recommend by Byrne (2010) and Butts et al. (2009).

Finally, the AMOS output produces squared multiple correlation (R^2) values for every endogenous variable (Byrne, 2010). These are interpreted exactly the same as is done in standard regression analysis, with the R^2 value of a variable being the proportion of its variance that is accounted for by the predictor variables (Byrne).

To summarize, CFA was used to determine the number of factors in the structural empowerment data, using the Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) value of .05 or less as adequate fit. The subsequent hypotheses testing employed the fit indices of a non-significant chi-square value, a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) value close to .95, and a Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA) value of .05 or less, along with all factor loadings being significant at .05 or less, indicating closeness of fit.

4.8.1 CFA Procedure: Emergence of a Unidimensional Factor

Individual first order confirmatory models were used to test the three factors to determine if the item loadings in the exploratory analysis were a good fit. Following the procedure recommended by Byrne (2010), each factor was entered into the model as a latent variable, with the items loading on it in the exploratory factor analysis as manifest (indicator) variables. It was necessary that the individual factor models result in a good fit in order to test the hypothesis that structural empowerment is as three factor structure via a second order confirmatory model.

Each factor model was tested in an iterative process. First all the variables that loaded and cross loaded on the factor were analyzed, and the RMSEA value was checked to evaluate fit. This was done to identify the most appropriate placement of these variables. Also, the variables loading only on the factor were tested separately. Variables were removed from the models as suggested by the theoretical plausibility, the modification index and parameter loadings. The marker variable method was used to test all of the models in this study to facilitate model identification (Kline, 2011; IBM, 2013). This method requires that one of the parameters (regression pathway) from the latent variable to an indicator be restricted to a regression weight of one.

The test of Factor 3 resulted in poor fit with the best RMSEA value being .274 with all the loading variables included. Subsequent tests involving only the formal power items produced poorer RMSEA scores.

The RMSEA values for the Factor 2 models also indicated a poor fit. First, a model testing all the job knowledge and task resources loaded items (all manifest indicators), resulted in the best RMSEA value being .160. Subsequent tests of the cross-loaded items resulted in poorer RMSEA values. To ensure rigor and enhance researcher understanding the job knowledge and task resource variables were tested separately. This resulted in inadequate fitting models, with the best RAMSEA scores being .132 for task resources and .097 for job knowledge.

The tests of Factor 1 resulted in a close and best fit for 14 variables with a RAMSEA value of .045, 90% CI [.035, .056]. The chi-square value for the model was $\chi^2(77, N = 487) = 153.16 = p < .001$. The Confirmative Fit Index (CFI) also confirmed a good fit at .974. Also, all the parameter and variance estimates were statistically significant at $p < .001$. The unstandardized regression weights, standard errors and standardized regression weights values can be found in Appendix A.1.

The items comprising this single factor model consisted of five of the department support items, four reward items, three information items, one formal power item and one job knowledge item.

To further confirm the viability of a unidimensional structure, the 14 items were tested in exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood with both varimax and promax rotation (rotation proved not to be needed). The result confirmed a single factor

structure accounting for 44.5% of the variance. The factor loading and correlation matrix for this final solution is presented in Appendixes A.3 and A.4.

The internal consistency of the items was examined using Chronbach's alpha. The alpha was excellent at .92, with the alpha if item deleted scale reflecting a decreased in cumulative score should any one of the items be removed. This one factor model was labeled as *Department Support*. The descriptive statistics are presented on the next pages.

Table 5.

Descriptive Statistics for the Department Support Items

Variable	Original Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard Deviation
Q5. The feedback that I receive from my supervisors accurately reflects my job performance.	Reward	3.48	.952
Q7. The Department adequately supports me in my work role.	Department Support	3.38	1.04
Q11. For the most part, my workplace is an empowering environment.	Formal Power	3.10	1.06
Q13. The Department is tolerant of honest mistakes.	Department Support	3.55	.578
Q14. Department policies and procedures are clearly communicated to officers.	Information	3.41	1.03
Q15. I get credit for my ideas.	Reward	3.32	.901

Table 5. (Continued)
Descriptive Statistics for the Department Support Items

Variable	Original Sub-construct	Mean	Standard Deviation
Q20. I believe the Department would back me in a controversial situation.	Department Support	2.83	1.06
Q22. In general, I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for my work	Reward	3.28	.938
Q24. I have adequate opportunities to learn new skills and knowledge on the job.	Job Knowledge	3.32	1.02
Q28. The Department provides adequate explanations about the decisions that are made.	Information	2.56	1.04
Q29. The Department does a good job of recognizing officer successes as well as failures.	Reward	3.06	1.05
Q35. I am given the information I need to perform my job.	Information	3.08	.988
Q42. The Department would grant a reasonable request for a change in my work assignment.	Department Support	3.31	.954
Q47. The Department values my contributions.	Department Support	3.31	.954

4.9 Rationale for the One-Factor Model of Department Support

The statistical analyses confirmed that the data best fit the simple structure of a unidimensional construct. Further, please recall that Research Question Four (Hypothesis 5), pondered the possibility of differences in the predictive strengths of the empowerment sub-constructs. Indeed, five of the original department support items significantly fitting

the single model indicate predictive superiority, yet, these are accompanied by statistically significant items from the sub-constructs of reward, information, formal power and job knowledge. Additional review of the original support items indicates these largely tap concern for officer wellness. This suggests that, at least for this sample and perhaps this population, department support is quantitatively defined by more elements than the original operational definition of concern for officer wellness and valuation of officer contributions as derived from Eisenberger's et al (1986) organizational support theory. It seems plausible that just as Eisenberger's et al. construct of organizational support has dual facets but is unidimensional, then a similar construct of support might also be unidimensional but multi-faceted.

Further it is intuitively logical that concern for officers' wellness would innately manifest through providing them with necessary information and mechanisms to increase job efficacy. It is also intuitively logical that valuing the officers' contribution would be evaluated by the officer perceiving they are adequately rewarded, albeit in a non-monetary sense, for their work product. The organizational support literature as well as the law enforcement literature bolster these contentions.

To recount, Eisenberger et al. (1986) defined organizational support as an employee's perception of their general belief about the degree to which the organization values their work contribution and is concerned for their well-being. This perceived level of support, in turn, drives a social exchange interaction where the employee is committed to the organization based on the degree to which they believe the organization is committed to them (Eisenberger et al.). The 36 item scale created by Eisenberger et al. (1986) to measure perception of organizational support (POS) was intended to be suitable

for use in most organizational contexts, and accordingly, is comprised of global items designed to tap the aspects of the construct definition. While the measure was not designed to specifically tap the organizational elements of information, reward or job efficacy, several studies have found these elements to be empirically related to POS.

For example, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that the employee perceiving fair treatment in the organization through having a voice, and, frequently receiving accurate and honest information were positively related to POS. Further, POS has been found to be positively correlated to supervisor support, particularly through accurate performance evaluations, and, being adequately rewarded (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1985). Job training and job enrichment have also been demonstrated to have a positive relationship with POS (Shore & Shore; Wayne, Shore & Linden, 1997).

Very little research exists examining POS in a policing context. One of two studies located in this domain provides further confirmation of the relationship between POS and job knowledge. Currie and Dollery (2006), examined two forms of POS and organizational commitment. Specifically, the relationship between POS as defined by Eisenberger et al. (1986), which was measured with a modified version of their scale, POS in the form of career development (POSCD) was measured with a scale developed by the researchers, and organizational commitment was measured with a previously validated scale. The sample consisted of 351 officers and student officers in the Australian police service (Currie & Dollery). The researchers reported that there were

low perception levels of all of these variables that would likely be improved with an increase in POSCD, particularly in the areas of “additional skills training and tuition reimbursement” (p. 741).

In addition, the reciprocal commitment interaction of organizational support has been found to fulfill the socioemotional needs of employees, which in turn, results in their social identity being linked to the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In fact, the second study located regarding POS and law enforcement assessed this socioemotional link. Specifically, Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo and Lynch (1998) investigated the relationship between the level of individual socioemotional need, perception of organizational support and work performance in a sample of 92 state police patrol officers. POS was measured with a shortened version of the original scale, the level of socioemotional need was measured with a combination of previously validated scales, and work performance was measured with the number of DUI arrests made, and speeding citations issued, by the officers in a 12 twelve-month period (Armeli et al.). The researchers found that a general increase in the number of DUI arrests and citations was related to a greater need for socioemotional support, that in turn, acted as moderator between POS and work performance (Armeli et al.). Also, it was determined that POS fulfills socioemotional needs and that work production is increased by the receipt of socioemotional resources (Armeli et al.).

A clear operational definition of support has not emerged from the literature involving law enforcement. However, some existing definitions do strongly suggest the socioemotional and interpersonal nature of support operating in law enforcement organizations. For example, Martinussen et al. (2007) describe support as “The degree of

autonomy that police experienced in their work and social support from supervisors and co-workers” (p. 243). Volati and Aaron (1995) define support to be “meaningful interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates” (p. 292). Last, Morash et al. (2006) found support in a large metropolitan police agency to be very general, describing it as “...understanding of an assistance to police officers with regard to issues related to work” (p. 29). Combining these definitions indicates that in law enforcement organizations support exists as a construct that encompasses several work related areas, including both emotional and task needs. As such, it is plausible that support could be captured in a one factor model derived from items that tapped both domains.

Last, research has found the consequences of organizational support to include a positive relationship with job satisfaction and a negative relationship with job stress (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), including burnout (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandy, & Toth, 1997). In comparison, the research in the law enforcement domain, as presented in the first literature review, is replete with the concept of support having a positive relationship with officer job satisfaction (Brough & Frame, 2004; Davey et al., 2001; Dowler, 2005;) and a negative relationship with officer work stress (Brown & Campbell, 1990; Kiely & Peek, 2002; Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004). Thus, the plausibility of using the one factor model of department support as a predictor of job satisfaction and burnout in a policing domain is bolstered by the literature.

In summary, there is an adequate statistical and conceptual foundation for organizational support to exist as a multi-faceted one factor model. The operational definition of department support for this study was based on the literature and item contents of the factor. Specifically, the operational definition of department support is

officers perceiving that their employing agency is assisting them in their work role by being concerned for their welfare, providing adequate information and reward (non-monetary), a mechanism of job efficacy, and creating an empowering work environment. This model aligns with the established constructs of organizational support appearing in the literature and is statistically viable, thus warranting the subsequent analyses. It remains possible that some of the structural empowerment items merged into a single construct. However, the extant literature does not support this, and is replete with the finding that structural empowerment is comprised of multiple but separate factors.

4.10 Restatement of the Research Questions and Hypotheses

The emergence of Department Support as a potential predictive construct necessitated that the research questions and hypotheses be revised. These begin with Research Question 2 as Research Question 1 involving the factor structure of the empowerment data has been determined.

The literature reflected that a positive relationship existed between support and psychological empowerment either directly (Lashinger et al., 2001) or as a moderator (Butts et al. 2009). In addition, the previous analysis established that there is a statistically positive relationship between department support and a general perception of workplace empowerment (Question 11). Also, both Butts et al. and Laschinger et al. found psychological empowerment to be positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job stress.

RQ 2. Does a positive statistical relationship exist between department support and empowerment? Thus:

H₂: There is a statistically significant positive relationship, net the effects of demographic variables, between officer perception of department support and officer perception of psychological empowerment.

RQ 3. Does psychological empowerment mediate the effects of department support on officer perception of job satisfaction and officer perception of burnout (emotional exhaustion)? Thus:

H₃: There is a positive statistically significant relationship between officer perception of structural empowerment and job satisfaction that is mediated by psychological empowerment.

H₄: There is a statistically significant negative relationship between officer perception of department support and burnout that is mediated by psychological empowerment.

The literature indicated that, in several instances, support had a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and negative relationship with burnout (Cropanzano et al. 1997). Thus, should it be found that there is no significant effect of psychological empowerment:

RQ 4. Does department support have a positive relationship with job satisfaction and negative relationship with burnout? Thus:

H₅: Department support has a statistically significant positive relationship with job satisfaction and a statistically significant negative relationship with burnout.

RQ 5. Do demographic variables effect a model confirming the predicted relationships between department support, job satisfaction and burnout?

H₆₋₁₀: The demographic variables of gender, education, tenure, assignment and agency size have no effect on the relationship between department support, job satisfaction and burnout.

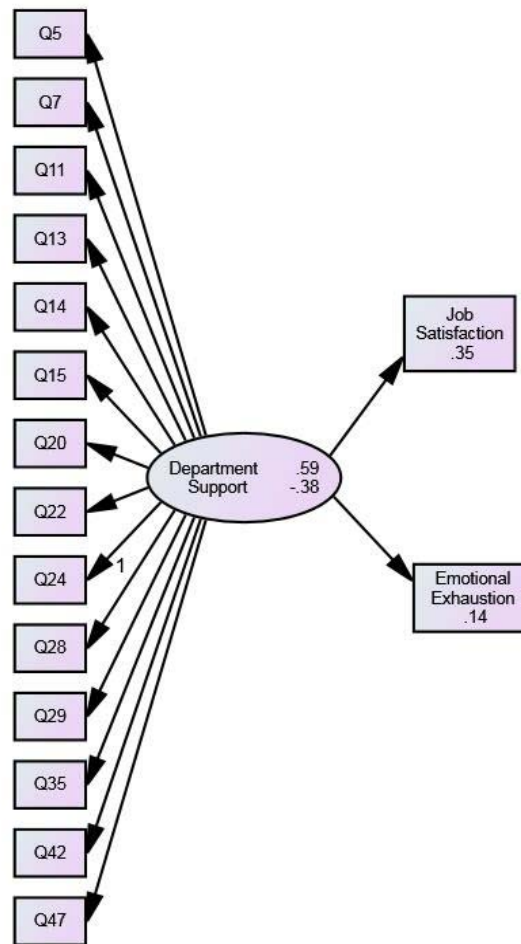
4.11 Testing of Hypotheses

There have been mixed results regarding the relationship between organizational support and empowerment. Some studies have found an association (Chow, Lo, Sha & Hong, 2006) and others have not (Corsun & Eng, 1999). Yet, several researchers (Butts et al. 2009; Carless, 2004; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005) have successfully measured psychological empowerment as a mediating variable in SEM analysis by incorporating it as a first order model. Specifically, the construct of psychological empowerment was treated as a latent variable with the average of the items of the four observed sub-constructs (Meaning, Impact, Self-determination, Competency) as indicator variables. Butts et al. (2009) recommend the use of a first order model of psychological empowerment to ameliorate the complications that often occur when a second order model is used to measure the interaction effects with organizational support.

Accordingly, a test of psychological empowerment data as a first-order model was performed. The fit indices indicated that the data did not adequately fit the model, with χ^2 (2, N = 487) = 13.86, $p < .001$, CFI = .935, RMSEA = .110, 90% CI [.061, .169]. The modification indices reflected an improvement in model fit if impact and self-determination were allowed to co-vary. This adjustment was made for exploratory purposes and resulted in an over-fitted (implausible) model (Kline, 2011) indicated by a CFI value of 1.0 and a RMSEA value of .000, 90% CI [.000, .000] It was determined that the psychological empowerment model would not be used in the subsequent SEM analyses. As such, Research Questions 2 and 3, and, Hypotheses 2 through 4, were answered in that a significant statistical relationship between Department Support and psychological empowerment was not established here.

The relationship between department support, job satisfaction and burnout was tested with a partially- latent hybrid model defined as a path model that contains both latent and manifest variables (Kline, 2011). This type of model employing both single item or averaged scales items as manifest dependent variables has been used in similar research (Butts et. al., 2009; Carless, 2004; Laschinger et al. 2001, 2005).

The one factor department support model was inserted as the independent variable, and the averages of the job satisfaction and burnout scales were inserted as manifest dependent variables. A covariance pathway was included between job satisfaction and burnout as an inverse relationship has been empirically shown to exist between these two variables (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This was the only modification to the model. The analyses revealed a good fitting model where $\chi^2 (103, N = 487) = 227.15, p < .001, CFI = .963, RMSEA = .050, 90\% CI [.015 - .059]$. All parameters (regression pathways) and variance values were statistically significant at $p < .001$. As predicated, department support had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction and accounted for 35% of the variance ($R^2 = .35, \beta = .59, p < .001$). Also, as predicated, department support had a significant negative effect on burnout and accounted for a variance of 14% ($R^2 = .14, \beta = -.38, p < .001$). The correlation of job satisfaction and burnout ($r = -.44$) confirmed an inverse relationship existing between the variables. The model's non-standardized regression weight, standard errors and standardized regression weights are presented in Appendix A.2. These results provided an affirmative response to Hypothesis 5 and Research Question 5. The measured model appears on the next page.



$\chi^2 (103, N = 487) = 227.15, p < .001$
 CFI = .963
 RMSEA = .05, 90% CI [.041, .059]

Figure 6. Measured Model of Department Support

The final research question and hypothesis concerned the effect that officer and agency demographic (categorical) variables might exert on the fitted and statistically significant model. These were tested with both SEM and standard mean difference analytics. There was no original intent in this study to test differences in categorical variables, however, it was subsequently deemed necessary to do so in the interest of rigor. Also, it was more efficient and effective to confirm these differences via conventional analyses (Gaskin, 2013) as AMOS does not easily accommodate categorical variables (Gaskin; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

However, binary variables, can be tested directly in models (Arbuckle, 2013; Gaskin, 2013). Following the procedure recommended by Gaskin (2013) the gender variable (previously dummy coded 1,0) was inserted into the model as an independent variable with pathways drawn to the dependent variables of department support, job satisfaction and burnout. The parameter weights between gender and the dependent variables were not significant, and there was no change in the parameter weights of the other variables. Subsequently, the mean value for department support was computed ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .682$), and used in an independent samples t-test as a dependent variable, along with job satisfaction and burnout, with gender as the independent variable. The analysis revealed no significant difference between gender type and the dependent variables. As such, the established relationships between department support, job satisfaction and burnout were not influenced by officer gender.

Next, supervisory status was tested in the model, and wielded no effects on the ancillary parameter weights, and, there was no significant relationship indicated with

job satisfaction or burnout. However, a significant effect with department support was indicated. The group difference was examined further with an independent samples t-test with supervisor as the independent variable and department support, job satisfaction and burnout as dependent variables. This resulted in a significant effect for supervisory status where $t(485) = 3.23$, $p = .001$, indicating supervisors ($M = 3.34$, $SD = .673$) having a stronger perception of department support than non-supervisors ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .677$).

A similar procedure was used to test the effects of the demographic variables that had more than two groups as AMOS does not accommodate multiple categories of nominal variables well (Gaskin, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). These must be converted to binary variables to be tested within models. The Reference Variable Method, as recommended by Gaskin (2013) was used to test these variables. This technique is often used to control for categorical variables in regression models (Gaskin; Norusis, 2009) and works in SEM as it is a form of linear regression (Gaskin). Each individual group type was converted in to a dummy variable coded as 1 or 0. Then all but one of the group variables was tested in the model noted as (N -1), to determine any effect on the model (Gaskin). However, conventional analysis is more efficient to identify specific differences between groups than is AMOS (Gaskin).

Using the describe procedure, the variable of assignment type (Patrol, Investigations, Support) was tested and found to have no effect on the model as the ancillary parameter weights remained unaltered. There were also no significant interactions with job satisfaction or burnout. However, a significant effect with department support was indicated. A subsequent MANOVA was conducted to determine the source of the difference, with assignment entered as the independent variable and

department support, job satisfaction and burnout entered as dependent variables. This resulted in a marginally significant multivariate effect for assignment type where Wilkes' Lambda = .97, $F(6, 964)$, $p = .052$. The between-subjects effects showed a significant effect for job satisfaction ($p = .049$) and department support ($p = .004$). For exploratory purposes, post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test were conducted. These indicated a difference between work groups, with officers in support ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .68$) and investigative roles ($M = 3.92$, $SD = .54$) being more satisfied in their jobs than officers with patrol assignments ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .67$). Also, the post-hoc analysis indicated that officers in support roles ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .64$), felt greater department support than those officers assigned to patrol ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .70$), or to investigations ($M = 3.22$, $SD = .63$).

The variables of education level, tenure, and agency size exerted no effect on the model. Also no significant effect resulted from MANOVA analyses where these demographic traits were tested as independent variables. Ethnicity was not tested due to the overwhelming number of respondents being Caucasian. In conclusion, the measurement model was not significantly influenced by officer or agency demographic characteristics.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, CONCLUSION

5.1 Discussion

The initial purpose of this exploratory and cross-sectional study was to examine the organizational factors that influence law enforcement officers' perception of job stress and perception of job satisfaction. Doing so was necessary as the extant literature was replete with the finding that the area of police work that causes the greatest amount of job stress and dissatisfaction for officers was not providing police service (job content), but stemmed from the organizational environment (job context) (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Gains et al., 1991; Reiser, 1974; Slate et al., 2003; Slate et al., 2007; Stinchcomb, 2004; Zhao et al., 2002). However, the literature was equally replete with the finding that the exact organizational factors that wielded these deleterious effects are amorphous and ambiguous (Carlan, 2006; Zhao, et al., 1999; Zhao et al., 2002). This situation was further confounded due to the lack of a guiding and encompassing theoretical construct through which the myriad of organizational influences and consequences may be identified and measured (King, 2003; Webster, 2013). It was postulated that empowerment theory might provide this theoretical lens as it has been successfully employed as such in similar private sector research (Butts et al., 2009; Laschinger et al., 2001). This construct was operationalized a priori as being seven sub-constructs, with the initial research questions and hypotheses framed accordingly.

Subsequent exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated that the simple structure of the data formed a unidimensional factor, consisting of 14 items. These included five support items, four reward items, three information items, one job knowledge item and one formal empower item. This was a surprising yet informative occurrence, which did answer the first original research question and hypothesis. Specifically, for this sample, structural empowerment was not a seven factor structure. Also, the data here did not form a four factor structure confirmed by Butts et al. (2009) or a five factor structure as confirmed by Laschinger et al. (2001, 2005). In short, structural empowerment existing as a unidimensional construct, while possible, was not bolstered by the literature.

This necessitated an additional review of the literature to define a plausible conceptual explanation for a single factor construct. It was determined that organizational support theory (Eisenberger, et al., 1986) provided a conceptual foundation for the factor construct produced here. Specifically, organizational support is a well-established unidimensional construct with a two-part definition of caring for employee well-being and valuing the employees' contribution (Eisenberger et al., 1986). While not directly incorporated in Eisenberger's et al. (1986) definition and measure, the elements of information and reward (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1985), and job enrichment (Currie & Dolley, 2006; Wayne et al. 1997) have been found to be related to organizational support.

Further, the law enforcement literature supported a unidimensional model of this composition in two ways. First, no standardized definition appeared in the literature, and those definitions that did appear are very general. Thus, it appeared that organizational

support in a law enforcement context is highly malleable and conducive to inclusion of both interpersonal and task related needs. Second, the items loading here on a support construct in a law enforcement sample were consistent with the literature as areas of officer need and concern. These areas included access and exchange of information (Brown & Campbell, 1990; Zhao et al., 1999), adequate reward structures (Buzawa et al., 1994; Pelfrey, 2004) and mechanisms to improve job efficacy (Currie & Dollery, 2006; Dantzker, 1997).

It is interesting so few of the formal power items survived the factor analysis procedure as involvement in department decision-making was salient in the literature as an area of officer need (Morash et al., 2006; Slate et al. 2007; Zhao et al. 2002). However, many of the study samples examining this issue are drawn from one or two agencies where officer involvement in decision- making may be innately bereft. In comparison, this study was drawn from multiple agencies, and perhaps over all, this need is being accommodated. It is also possible that the multiplicity of the sample here is minimizing some areas of officer need, including involvement in agency decision-making and autonomy. Another possible explanation may be found in the significance of the relationship found here between department support and a general perception of workplace empowerment (Question 11) where ($R^2 = .50$, $\beta = .70$, $p < .001$). Perhaps the empowerment item has tapped the issues of officer involvement in decision-making and autonomy. The mean value for empowerment of 3.10 indicates a moderate level of perception in this area. However, this is highly speculative as the construct of empowerment did not appear in the law enforcement literature, and further research in this area is needed.

It is also interesting that the department support construct contained only one of the elements of job knowledge (Question 24: “I have adequate opportunity to learn new skills and knowledge on the job”) and none of the task resource items. The review presented here abundantly reflected the pressing organizational needs of law enforcement officers were in the interpersonal and social capital domains, rather than in the material resource domain. Likewise, even a cursory review of the practitioner based literature would likely indicate a focus on the task related issues of policing rather than the human relations aspects. Both types of literature suggest that officers’ job content needs are being met. This also suggests a primary practitioner focus on the job content aspects of policing, with a lesser focus on the more complicated job context issues. Perhaps the single loading item regarding job enrichment indicates that this area of support is important, but not as critical as the more interpersonal aspects of officer wellness, reward and information. This is also an area in need of further study.

The emergence of the unidimensional construct of department support necessitated that the research questions and hypotheses be revised and it would be cumulative to repeat these here. Instead, the relevance of the findings will be discussed.

It was intended to test the relationship between department support and psychological empowerment. However, the confirmatory factor analysis of the psychological empowerment items resulted in an inadequate fitting model, rendering it problematic for further SEM analysis. While this construct could be measured via the averaging of the summated scale, this technique is more appropriate for standard regression analysis, which could be done in another study. The deciding factor, however, was that none of the methodologies on which this study was based used the mean value

of psychological empowerment as a manifest variable. After careful consideration it was determined that the psychological empowerment construct would not be measured here. The best explanation for the inadequate fit of this data is offered by Spreitzer et al. (1997) who report that this construct has proved to have different outcomes. In concurrence, Laschinger et al. (2004) observe that not all aspects of empowerment may be important for all jobs or all people. This may be true of law enforcement.

Next, the relationships between department support, officer perception of job satisfaction and officer perception of burnout were measured. The result of a positive association existing between department support and job satisfaction was consistent with both the general support literature (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and the law enforcement literature (Brough & Frame, 2004; Davey et al., 2001; Dowler, 2005). Also, the negative relationship between department support and burnout established here was likewise consistent with the general organizational support literature (Cropanzano et al, 1997; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002) and that specific to law enforcement (Brown & Campbell, 1990; Kiely & Peek; 2002; Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004). However, it is important to recount that while the definition of support for Eisenberger et al. (1986) is the accepted standard in most of the general literature, the definition of support varied in law enforcement research, including the one used in this study. This too is an area in need of additional investigation.

The model produced here accounted for 35% of the variance in officer job satisfaction and 14% of the variance in burnout. These results are not weak considering the generally accepted standard that more than 10% of the variance being explained is indicative of sound explanatory factors (Adelson, 1985). However, it would be optimal to

account for 50% or more of the variance in these critical perceptions, especially in the area of officer stress, as is indicated by the following final piece of data.

A single survey item asked the participants to identify the areas of their work role that caused them the greatest amount of stress, with three possible response options. The first option was the job content aspects of providing police service and conducting investigations. The second option was the job context related aspects of interpersonal relations and organizational dynamics. The third option was stress from both areas being about the same. A total of 462 officers responded, with 75 (16%) indicating that job content caused them the greatest amount of stress. One-hundred and eleven officers (24%) responded that the stress from both areas was about the same. Two hundred and seventy-six officers (60%) responded that their greatest source of stress is job context. This result does suggest that the participants may be experiencing more organizational stressors than indicated in the model, and other measures may better capture this perception.

It is again notable that the construct of department support produced here included a general empowerment item, which contributed to the relationship with job satisfaction and burnout. If it is stipulated that feeling empowered is a positive feeling toward the work role, then it follows that empowerment would help meet a socioemotional need, particularly in a policing organization. While it is very dubious and premature to draw conclusions drawn from a single item (Kline, 2011), this does suggest that empowerment may be an outcome of support, at least in a policing context. While there is little doubt that these two constructs are bound, the exact nature of the bond in the law enforcement profession requires greater exploration.

The final analyses controlled for the effects of officer and agency demographic variables, which resulted in these having no effect on the measurement model. However, a significant effect between supervisory status and department support was indicated. This relationship was explored further via an independent samples t test, which indicated that supervisors ($p = .001$) had a greater perception of department support than did non-supervisors. This result is logical as organizational support has been found to be related to leader-member exchange theory (Wayne et al., 1997) So, perhaps some of these respondent leaders work to create and sustain a supportive environment. It could also be that a supportive environment exists among the command cadre in which these respondents work, and therefore they perceive being supported. While subordinate officers could contribute to a supportive work environment, it is difficult to perceive it possible for them to create and control it. The nature of support and leader-member exchange in policing is another area in need of further research.

Last, a significant effect was indicated for assignment type when it was entered in the measurement model. A subsequent MANOVA test indicated a marginally significant ($p = .052$) multivariate effect for assignment type which was pursued due to the exploratory nature of this study. The between-subjects effects showed a significant effect for job satisfaction ($p = .049$) and department support ($p = .004$). Post-hoc analyses indicated that officers assigned to support and investigative roles were more satisfied in their jobs than were officers assigned to patrol. This finding is consistent with some of the literature where patrol officers tend to report being less satisfied in their work role than are officers assigned to other areas (Hoath, Schneider and Starr, 1998; Slate et al. 2007).

Also, post - hoc analysis showed that officers assigned to support roles had a greater perception of department support than did officers assigned to patrol or investigations. It may be that officers assigned to non-enforcement duties perceive greater support as these tend to be held by supervisory personnel. Also, support roles occur in a more controlled environment where immediate critical decisions do not have to be made. In contrast, officers in enforcement roles work in a fluid and dynamic environment, where making split-second critical decisions is a constant. As such, greater support may be perceived by non-enforcement personnel as their job performance and decisions are not scrutinized as frequently or as critically as those made by enforcement officers.

5.2 Recommendations

As has been alluded to in the previous section a great deal of additional research of support and empowerment in law enforcement is needed. This study has taken a step in this area, but many questions remain outstanding. Foremost among these is how empowerment and support exist and function in the law enforcement profession. It is possible that, due to the unique paramilitary and strong hierarchical structure of the American police, the factor structures of empowerment established in private sector studies are not applicable. The plausibility remains that structural empowerment is a unidimensional construct in police agencies. In addition, both constructs require definitions specific for the law enforcement profession as neither currently exists.

It is strongly recommended that qualitative methods be used initially in pursuit of these questions as there is so very little extant literature regarding the concepts of empowerment and support in law enforcement. It is generally accepted that qualitative

methods can be used to better understand any phenomenon about which little is yet known (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Also, Greasley et al. (2008) observed that the majority of empowerment research has tended to employ quantitative approaches, and thus they contend that qualitative approaches will produce “further insights into the meaning of empowerment” (p.44). Such methods would be particularly useful in clarifying the complicated relationship that exists between empowerment and support. It is also recommended that qualitative data be gathered to better elucidate the meaning and process of officer job satisfaction and job stress as these remain somewhat enigmatic.

Qualitative inquiries could include a systematic review of the police literature where the definitions, antecedents and consequences of support are content analyzed. Also, semi-structured interviews of a variety of officers could be conducted to understand their lived experiences concerning empowerment, support, job satisfaction and job stress. This data should elucidate the meaning, patterns and processes of empowerment and support in the police world, which would inform subsequent quantitative research.

Due to the lingering ambiguity of the empowerment and support constructs, it is difficult to discern if the results of this study would be generalizable across the law enforcement population. Yet, some conditions of this study indicate that replication is possible. For example, the sample is of a decent size ($n = 487$) and drawn from across a variety of agency sizes and types. Also, the literature reflected that the importance of support, and the subsumed elements of officer welfare, reward, information, and job knowledge found here, are consistent over time and place in the policing community.

However, this study also has several limitations and recommendations are suggested in remedy. First, a purposive sampling strategy was necessitated by the lack of

an existing sampling frame. Non- random sampling is common in the research of the American police for this reason. However, it is recognized that a simple random sample is always optimal, and should be pursued whenever possible in future research.

Next, there is little doubt that female officers and officers from minority groups are under-represented in the sample. While the sample composition did reflect the established demographics that the majority of American police officers are male and Caucasian, the under-representation of female officers and officers of color is discouraging. It is recommended that future studies strive to increase the participation from these groups. Perhaps this could be accomplished through a qualitative snowball sampling strategy that facilitates the mentioned semi-structured interviews, and subsequent participation in other modes of data collection.

Also, this study was limited to the law enforcement officers working in a single state. It is necessary that the constructs examined here be investigated in law enforcement populations in other states and regions, with both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Last, the number of officers representing medium sized agencies was a somewhat limiting factor here. It would be optimal to have a large number of participants from a variety of agency sizes, and perhaps this would inherently be accomplished through a larger regional or nationwide sample.

5.3 Conclusion

The initial objective of this study was to understand the organizational causes of officer job stress and job satisfaction. Empowerment theory was employed as the guiding construct through which to identify those facets of the organization that influence these

perceptions. During the analytical process, support emerged to be the dominant and guiding construct through which the research questions were pursued. As a result, a definition of organizational support for law enforcement was created as well as a means of measuring this construct. It is in no way asserted that this model is definitive of the phenomena of organizational support in a policing context. This is a formidable empirical question that well exceeds the capacity of this study. It is merely posited that the results of this study encourage further inquiry into the process of organizational support, as well as empowerment, in the law enforcement profession.

Yet, support and empowerment are merely lenses through which to access the more critical issue of officer wellness. The fact remains that the greatest sources of job stress and dissatisfaction for law enforcement officers occurs within their organizations. This study contributes to this finding. This source of stress, unlike that generated from the street or field, can and should be reduced. Wycoff and Skogan (1993, 1994) empirically demonstrated over two decades ago, that the quality of the internal police environment is inevitably radiated in to the community. Continued scholarship in this area is imperative as it will facilitate the identification and mitigation of these harmful internal influences, which is in the best interest of law enforcement officers and the citizens they serve.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Statistical Tables

Table A.1

Regression Weights and Standard Errors for the Department Support CFA

Variable	Unstandardized Regression Weight	Standard Error	Standardized Regression Weight
Q5	1.00		.62
Q7	1.33	.09	.74
Q11	1.28	.10	.70
Q13	.947	.08	.63
Q14	1.06	.09	.60
Q15	1.05	.08	.68
Q20	1.34	.10	.74
Q22	1.16	.10	.73
Q24	1.10	.93	.63
Q28	1.25	.10	.69
Q29	1.26	.98	.70
Q35	.837	.07	.61
Q42	.763	.08	.45
Q47	1.25	.09	.77

$\chi^2 (77, N = 487) = 153.16 = p < .001$

Table A.2
Regression Weights and Standard Error for the Measurement Model

Variable	Unstandardized Regression Weight	Standard Error	Standardized Regression Weight
Q5	1.00		.62
Q7	1.34	.10	.75
Q11	1.31	.10	.72
Q13	.941	.08	.63
Q14	1.05	.09	.60
Q15	1.03	.08	.67
Q20	1.34	.10	.74
Q22	1.16	.09	.72
Q24	1.10	.93	.63
Q28	1.23	.99	.68
Q29	1.25	.98	.70
Q35	.839	.07	.61
Q42	.766	.09	.45
Q47	1.26	.09	.77
Job Satisfaction	.663	.10	.59
Emotional Exhaustion	-.779	.10	-.38

$\chi^2 (103, N = 487) = 227.15 = p < .001$

Table A.3
Correlation Matrix for the One-Factor EFA

	Q5	Q7	Q11	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q20
Q5	1.00	0.49	0.47	0.37	0.38	0.41	0.42
Q7	0.49	1.00	0.59	0.46	0.44	0.49	0.58
Q11	0.47	0.59	1.00	0.42	0.40	0.46	0.49
Q13	0.37	0.46	0.42	1.00	0.43	0.40	0.54
Q14	0.38	0.44	0.40	0.43	1.00	0.38	0.42
Q15	0.41	0.49	0.46	0.40	0.38	1.00	0.48
Q20	0.42	0.58	0.49	0.54	0.42	0.48	1.00
Q22	0.47	0.47	0.49	0.46	0.41	0.59	0.51
Q24	0.36	0.43	0.45	0.41	0.42	0.45	0.42
Q28	0.40	0.51	0.51	0.42	0.45	0.42	0.53
Q29	0.45	0.48	0.46	0.43	0.40	0.50	0.51
Q35	0.40	0.45	0.45	0.40	0.42	0.38	0.43
Q42	0.28	0.28	0.32	0.27	0.27	0.31	0.34
Q47	0.44	0.61	0.55	0.47	0.44	0.55	0.60
	Q22	Q24	Q28	Q29	Q35	Q42	Q47
Q5	0.47	0.36	0.40	0.45	0.40	0.28	0.44
Q7	0.47	0.43	0.51	0.48	0.45	0.28	0.61
Q11	0.49	0.45	0.51	0.46	0.45	0.32	0.55
Q13	0.46	0.41	0.42	0.43	0.40	0.27	0.47
Q14	0.41	0.42	0.45	0.40	0.42	0.27	0.44
Q15	0.59	0.45	0.42	0.50	0.38	0.31	0.55
Q20	0.51	0.42	0.53	0.51	0.43	0.34	0.60
Q22	1.00	0.48	0.45	0.58	0.43	0.36	0.56
Q24	0.48	1.00	0.41	0.43	0.42	0.34	0.48
Q28	0.45	0.41	1.00	0.55	0.44	0.32	0.51
Q29	0.58	0.43	0.55	1.00	0.40	0.33	0.53
Q35	0.43	0.42	0.44	0.40	1.00	0.30	0.45
Q42	0.36	0.34	0.32	0.33	0.30	1.00	0.32
Q47	0.56	0.48	0.51	0.53	0.45	0.32	1.00

Table A. 4
Factor Loadings and Communalities for the One Factor Solution

Variable	Factor Loading	Communality
Q5. The feedback that I receive from my supervisors accurately reflects my job performance.	.61	.38
Q7. The Department adequately supports me in my work role.	.74	.55
Q11. For the most part, my workplace is an empowering environment.	.70	.50
Q13. The Department is tolerant of honest mistakes.	.63	.40
Q14. Department policies and procedures are clearly communicated to officers.	.60	.36
Q15. I get credit for my ideas.	.68	.46
Q20. I believe the Department would back me in a controversial situation.	.74	.54
Q22. In general, I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for my work.	.73	.53
Q24. I have adequate opportunities to learn new skills and knowledge on the job.	.63	.40
Q28. The Department provides adequate explanations about the decisions that are made.	.68	.47
Q29. The Department does a good job of recognizing officer successes as well as failures.	.70	.49
Q35. I am given the information I need to effectively perform my job.	.61	.38
Q42. The Department would grant a reasonable request for a change in my work assignment.	.45	.20
Q47. The Department values my contributions.	.77	.59

Appendix B. Survey Invitation

Dear Fellow Law Enforcement Officer,

My name is Bruce Biggs, and I am a retired police officer, having served 23 years with the (XXXXXX) Police Department. I'm currently pursuing a doctoral degree in Organizational Leadership with a focus in law enforcement leadership at Purdue University. I acquired this email address from your agency's public web page.

I'm gathering information for my dissertation research concerning officer wellness and the law enforcement organization. This research is being conducted under the guidance of my major professor, Dr. Linda Naimi, whose contact information is included below. I would be very grateful if you would take my online survey (link below). The survey asks your opinions about your current work role as a law enforcement officer, and it will only require about 12 of minutes of your time. I do not ask for any personal information and your participation is absolutely confidential. This information is being gathered for research purposes and your participation is entirely voluntary.

If you have questions or comments about my research, or, if I may be of service to you in any way, please contact me at 765-414-3308 (cell phone) or by email at babiggs@purdue.edu. Also, I would be happy to share my results with you when my study is completed. Please contact me if you are interested in the results.

Your insights are invaluable to me, and with your help I hope to not only fulfill an academic requirement, but to also gain knowledge that will contribute to the welfare of our fellow officers. Thank you very much for your help and your service.

Very Sincerely and Respectfully,

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Follow this link to the Survey:

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Appendix C. Study Structural Empowerment Items

Instructions: Listed below are a number of perception that Officers have about their work. Please use the following scale to indicate the extent that you agree or disagree with each statement. Thank you very much.

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neutral 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree

Formal Power

1. For the most part, my workplace is an empowering environment
2. I am involved in the department's decision-making process
3. The department fails to involve me in the decision-making process (R)
4. I have enough authority to fulfill my job responsibilities
5. I influence how other officers perform their jobs
6. I am involved in the creation of department policy
7. I am involved in developing department standard operating procedures (SOPs)

Informal Power

1. Commanders often consult with me about work issues
2. I am highly respected by my peers
3. The upper command staff thinks highly of me
4. This department is not a good fit for me (R)
5. My peer officers often seek my advice on work issues
6. I often collaborate with professionals outside of the department in my work role
7. I am a professional role model for other officers

Department Support

1. The department adequately supports me in my work role
2. The department is tolerant of honest mistakes
3. I believe the department would back me in a controversial situation
4. The department shows no concern about my work stress level (R)
5. The department cares about my job satisfaction
6. The department would grant a reasonable request for a change in my work assignment
7. The department values my contributions

Information

1. The department fails to maintain open lines of communication (R)
2. Department policies and procedures are clearly communicated to officers
3. I understand the goals of the upper level command staff
4. The department provides adequate explanations about the decisions that are made
5. I am given the information I need to perform my job
6. The department fails to keep me adequately informed (R)
7. The officers in this department work toward common goals

Reward

1. I get credit for my ideas
2. My performance evaluations adequately reflect my job performance
3. The feed-back I get from my supervisors adequately reflects my job performance
(For agencies that have no formal evaluation process)
4. In general, I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for my work
5. The department fails to recognize officers who give an extra effort (R)
6. The department does a good job of recognizing officer successes as well as officer failures.
7. The department is quick to discipline and slow to praise (R)

Resources

1. I have the time I need to complete necessary paperwork
2. Sufficient help is available to me when I need it
3. The department's sworn staffing level is adequate
4. I have the equipment I need to do my job
5. I am satisfied with the quality of the equipment provided to me.
6. I have the time I need to accomplish job requirements
7. The department fails to provide the resources officers need to perform their jobs (R)

Knowledge

1. I am adequately trained
2. I am satisfied with the number of training opportunities available to me
3. I have adequate opportunities to learn new skills and knowledge on the job
4. The training I receive helps me to do a better job
5. I am satisfied with the quality of my training
6. My training fails to include skill areas required in my work role (R)
7. I have adequate input regarding the training I receive

Appendix D. Psychological Empowerment Instrument (Spreitzer, 1995)

Instructions: Listed below are a number of perceptions that Officers have about their work. Please use the following scale to indicate the extent that you agree or disagree with each statement. Thank you very much.

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neutral 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree

I am confident about my ability to do my job. (C)

The work I do is important to me. (M)

I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job. (SD)

My impact on what happens in my department is large. (I)

My job activities are personally meaningful to me. (M)

I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department. (I)

I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work. (SD)

I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job. (SD)

I have mastered the skills necessary to for my job. (C)

The work I do is meaningful to me. (M)

I have significant influence over what happens in my department. (I)

I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities. (C)

Appendix E. General Job Satisfaction Scale (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

Each of the statements below is something that an officer might say about their job. Please indicate your feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements. Thank you very much.

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neutral 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree

1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.
2. I frequently think about quitting this job. (R)
3. I am generally very satisfied with the kind of work I do on this job.
4. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.

Appendix F. Demographic Survey

Please check the line that best describes your highest level of formal education, length of service and current full-time assignment. Thank you.

Education Level:

_____ High School Diploma/GED

_____ Some College

_____ Associate's Degree

_____ Bachelor's Degree

_____ Graduate Degree

Length of Police Service

_____ 1-5 years

_____ 6-10 years

_____ 11-15 years

_____ 16 -20 years

_____ More than 20 years

Current Full-Time Assignment:

_____ Patrol Division (Counted as patrol shift manpower)

_____ Investigations Division (Counted as investigative manpower)

_____ Traffic Division

_____ Support Services

_____ Other Full Time Assignment (please
describe)_____

Please provide the following information about yourself and your work role:

What is your gender? _____Female _____Male

Please identify your race _____

Please identify your rank _____

Do you have supervisory authority? Yes_____ No_____

How many sworn personnel is your agency allotted?

_____ 10 or less

_____ 11 – 20

_____ 21 – 30

_____ 31 – 40

_____ 41 – 50

_____ 51 – 99

_____ 100 – 200

_____ 201 – 499

_____ 500 or more

Appendix G. Permission to Use Psychological Empowerment Instrument
(Spreitzer, 2005)

From: Spreitzer, Gretchen [spreitze@bus.umich.edu]
Sent: Friday, February 19, 2010 8:12 PM
To: Bruce Biggs
Subject: RE: Request to Use Psychological Empowerment Instrument

Hello Bruce, your message sure made my day! I can't think of a more important context to study empowerment. I suspect you are right that it is crucial for effective community policing. I would be proud to have you use my instrument in your research. Please let me know if there is anything I can help with!

Best wishes to you Bruce and please share your findings with me so that I can learn from you!

Professor Gretchen M. Spreitzer

Area Chair and Professor of Management and Organizations

Ross School of Business

Ann Arbor, MI 48104

Phone: 734.936.2835

email: spreitze@umich.edu

website: <http://webuser.bus.umich.edu/spreitze/>

Appendix H. Permissions to Reproduce the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981)

For use by Bruce Biggs only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on August 18, 2015

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Christina Maslach Susan E. Jackson Michael P. Leiter Wilmar B. Schaufeli Richard L. Schwab

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VITA

VITA

Bruce A. Biggs**Education**

2011 M. S., Organizational Leadership and Supervision, Purdue University
 1999 M. S., Criminology, Indiana State University
 1987 B. S., Sociology/Emphasis in Criminal Justice, University of Iowa

Teaching Experience

Purdue University

Fall 2014, Spring 2015	<i>Criminology</i>	Department of Sociology
Spring, 2014, Summer 2012 & 2013	<i>Leadership Through Teams</i>	Department of Organizational Leadership & Supervision
Fall 2012 & Fall 2013	<i>Project Management</i>	Department of OLS
Fall 2013 & Summer 2014	<i>Applied Leadership</i>	Department of OLS

Teaching Experience (Cont.)

Ivy Tech Community College

Fall 2013

*Criminal Justice
Research Methods*

Department of
Public Safety

Publications

Biggs, B. A., & Naimi, L. L. (2012). Ethics in traditional policing: Reflecting on a paramilitary paradigm. *Franklin Business and Law Journal* 2012, (4), 139 -155.

Whiteacre, K., Terheide, D. & **Biggs, B.** (2015). Metal theft repeat Victimization. *International Journal of Crime Prevention and Community Safety*.

Conference Presentations

Biggs, B. A. & Norris, M.E. (2015). Examining the effect of crime prevention signage through social normative theory and attitude structures. Poster presented at the *Society for Personality and Social Psychology Annual Conference* (February). Long Beach, CA.

Whiteacre, K., Terheide, D., & **Biggs, B.** (2013). Metal theft repeat victimization. Paper presented at the *American Society of Criminology Annual Meeting* (November). Atlanta, GA.

Academic Grants and Awards

2015 *Summer Research Grant* Purdue Polytechnic Institute Office of Graduate Studies

2015 *Presentation Travel Award* Society for Personality and Social Psychology

Practitioner/Leadership Experience

1988 – 2012

Lafayette (IN) Police Department

Operational Assignments

2008 - 2012

Captain, Criminal Investigations Division

2005 - 2008

Captain, Support Services Division

2004 - 2005

Captain, Patrol Operations Division

2003 - 2004

Lieutenant, Patrol Operations

2002 - 2003

Sergeant, Patrol Operations

1988 - 2002

Officer/ Investigator, Multiple
Assignments*Law Enforcement Certifications and Instructor Experience*

1996 - 2012

Adjunct Instructor Indiana law
Enforcement Academy

2009

Master Instructor Certification (Indiana
Law Enforcement Training Board
ILETB)

2004

Counter-Terrorism Field Instructor
Certification. Louisiana State
University, National Center for
Biological Research and Training

2003

Crisis Intervention Team Certification
(National Alliance for the Mentally Ill
NAMI)

1996

Psycho-motor Skills Instructor
Certification (ILETB)

1991

Generalist Law Enforcement Instructor
Certification (ILETB)

1991

Field Training Officer Certification
(ILETB)

Synopsis of Instructor Activity:

Administered over 1000 hours of law enforcement training, both within the agency and at external venues, in the following areas: case law, criminal law, criminal procedure/rules of evidence, law enforcement leadership and management, firearms training, use of force, officer involved shooting investigations, conflict management/ diffusion, emergency and disaster management.

Practitioner Awards

Lafayette Latino Community Association Community Service Award	2013
City of Lafayette Police Merit Commission Distinguished Service Award	2012
West Lafayette Police Department Distinguished Service Award	2012
Fraternal Order of Police Meritorious Service Award	2012
LPD SWAT Distinguished Service Award	2005
Firearms Proficiency Award, Indiana Law Enforcement Training Board	1989